Educational Supervision

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EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION

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This book is dedicated to my wife, Charlotte,
and to our children, Shirley and Stephen

PREFACE

The public-school system is basic to the preservation, promotion, and advancement of the democratic way of life. Ideally we want every boy and girl to know the advantages that result from the opportunity to attend a public school through a minimum of the twelfth year. Actually the so-called "advantages" of a public education, beyond the confines of the elementary-school level, are and will remain ephemeral until we have the type of supervisory help we need to reorganize learning experiences in order to meet more adequately the needs of youth at the secondary level. This does not mean that the elementary schools have unalterably served only the needs of the pupils who attend them; it merely indicates that, at the present time, the learning experiences of the primary level are more directly related to the needs of the pupils and that the relationship between needs and learning experiences becomes more vague at each succeeding level.

That current school curriculums are not geared to the needs of youth at various levels is the basis for a problem that has been attacked by professional educators for some time. It is no secret that in the past elementary and secondary schools have concentrated upon preparing youth for the years of schooling ahead, rather than for competently meeting life problems, present and future. It is also no secret that parents have abetted this state of affairs by hopefully encouraging their offspring to acquire the symbols of an "education" in order to escape the many hardships that the parents encountered. Professional educators, and many lay persons, are also aware that various groups have attempted to encourage the public-school authorities to design learning experiences that will cause youth to develop biased attitudes toward religions, consumer economics, political philosophies, races, etc. The public-school program must objectively reflect the heartbeat of democracy, but we are all aware that the battle to maintain this objectivity has been bitter and may never end.

American people have liberally supported the public-education movement through tax provisions and by faith. They have expected their youth to develop certain attitudes, competencies, and skills during their years of public schooling, and to a degree they have been disappointed. This disappointment is the result of the action, inaction, misdirection, or absence of certain forces of which the major one, *supervision*, provides the principal theme of this volume. There has always been a need for direction and evaluation of the educational process. Without direction and evaluation, the end result of all supervision, *to provide pupils at all levels with better educational services*, will not be accomplished. Scientific advancements, increased school enrollments, restrictions upon building programs, modern psychological discoveries, loss of teachers to war and industry, surface tensions at home, the perpetual change and motion that is part of the American scene—these and many other forces have caused the supervisory problem to become of paramount importance.

In this volume the author first defines modern supervision and then proceeds to discuss the problems, and techniques for solving them, that the supervisor encounters in his relationships with the various classifications of school and community personnel and organizations. The advantages of democratic group action are constantly promulgated, and numerous examples of techniques for stimulating this type of action are presented. On occasion the contrast between rejected and accepted supervisory practices is developed for the explicit purpose of illustrating the advantages of the newer practices. From the opening chapter, in which a series of actual teacher problems are set forth, to the end of the volume, an attempt has been made to employ a common-sense approach to modern supervisory problems, practices, and theory.

The author gratefully acknowledges his indebtedness to the individuals, school systems, organizations, and publishing companies that have granted permission to describe their practices or to quote from their publications.

<div align="right">CHESTER T. McNERNEY</div>

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When J. M. Rice made his classic observations on time allotments in spelling two generations ago, he was blazing more than one pioneer trail. The beginnings of a road to the scientific study of education also opened up fresh vistas in curriculum, method, evaluation, and administration. Above all it made possible a new path to supervision. To those who grasped the genius of Rice's proposals, new concepts of pupil needs, new aims of developing social competence in each learner, new notions of directing growth of individual abilities, and new practices of educational leadership were inevitable.

The kind of supervision demanded by modern educational theory and practice was nevertheless slow to arrive. The old doctrine of the supervisor as overseer died hard, if indeed it may not still be said to have more than a gasp of life. Long after the pioneers of modern education in the United States had passed from the scene and the program and even the administration of schools had been profoundly modified by the forces the pioneers had set in motion, supervision remained a stronghold of inspection, prescription, and stultification. It was as though the American school were determined to swim boldly into new waters with a heavy dumbbell in either hand.

The reason for this anomaly in developing a new and better school lay deep in the nature of professional educators. Brought up and now working in schools where the teachers told the pupils what was what, the supervisors told the teachers who taught what, and the administrator told the supervisors who determined what, the ordinary school man or woman was timid about an education that would have no what-telling or who-saying in it. The new curriculum and methods obviously required a change in this situation between teacher and pupil. Not so obviously yet fairly soon, the new notions required a different relationship between administrator and teacher. Least obviously but just as pressingly, the new education called for a new brand of supervision.

The new practice of supervision was slow in coming, however. Perhaps this slowness was unavoidable in the circumstances. Super-

Chapter 1. AN INTRODUCTION TO MODERN SUPERVISION

Supervision is the procedure of giving direction to, and providing critical evaluations of, the instructional process. The end result of all supervision should be to provide students at all levels with better educational services.

Traditionally supervision has been limited to incidents directly associated with classroom teaching. To a large extent these incidents were directly associated with methods of rating the teacher.

Modern supervision goes beyond the classroom and attempts to direct the educational forces that influence students regardless of where those influences are found. In place of merely rating the teacher, rating is being considered as a subdivision of evaluation. The concept of evaluation is constantly being extended beyond a mere appraisal of student and teacher performance to include appraisals of the administrator, the school plant, instructional methods, instructional materials, school patrons, the curriculum, etc. Modern supervision is designed to help, not merely to rate, those who influence the educational process.

The general public, of which the students are a part, has most of its direct educational contacts with teachers. From the time at which a parent surrenders the hand of a child of five or six years of age to a teacher until that youngster completes his formal education, the teacher directly plays an important role in the life of the child and the child's family. As a result of this direct relationship, it is impossible for most people to think of a school experience without associating that experience with a particular teacher. But these teachers must always perform their important tasks in reference to local, county, and state school administrators. In most situations school administrators are subject to pressures of school boards who represent, to varying degrees, the educational will of the people. Thus we see that the improvement of educational services for students at all levels means, not the improvement of teachers alone,

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visors were selected ordinarily from the ranks of older, professionally more respectable, and therefore more docile teachers. They were commonly people who had themselves accepted overseeing and inspection more amiably than their fellows; that was partly why they were now supervisors. By training and selection they were apt devotees of old ways. Singled out by authority for their positions, they were inclined to feel secure only in authoritarian patterns of organization. No more effective handicap weights than the old-time supervisors could have been purposefully designed to slow up the American school in its race toward better days.

Education in the United States in real fact did not begin to enter its modern phase until the old kind of supervision was clearly seen to constitute a crucial roadblock. Then there arose a new generation of supervisors who knew that a very different kind of supervision was needed but were not sure what it should be. In humility they sought help from teachers, parents, pupils, and administrators. They began to operate under the doctrine that knowledge of the pupil and the community is the beginning of supervisory wisdom. From that humility and that knowledge, they have made the most dynamic and forward-looking system of educational supervision in the world.

The present book is a product of the new generation of supervisors, devised to help candidates for supervisory positions understand the concepts and acquire the technical tools of the craft. It suggests but does not prescribe. It offers a collection of supervisory information, instruments, and principles as samples of the supervisor's equipment, but it recognizes that there are many items which might well be added. It is designed in the hope that those who use it will acquire early the humble and cooperative attitude which has made modern supervision and will recognize that the modern supervisor must first of all know how to make his own tools and derive his own principles. The publishers and the editors are glad to join the author in presenting this work as an instrument for that purpose.

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GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS
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cope with familiarity from my students that very likely wouldn't have arisen in another place. Since I have been working with teachers who taught me as a student, I have had to accept their criticism."

Problems involving motivation: "My greatest problem is to keep a two-period end-of-day study hall busy."

"How can I interest commercial students in taking algebra when they know they don't have to pass the course?"

"How can I make general science more interesting for the girls in my science classes? In other words, how can I create interest in general science for the girls as well as the boys?"

Problems involving administration: "How can I improve my janitorial organization as well as establish better relations between janitors and teachers?"

"What steps can our faculty and myself take to have our lay public accept and understand a better system of reporting pupil progress?"

"At the present time the most pressing problem that I have is the placement of new teachers in a departmental setup. The school is undergoing a change at present. A new joint district has been made and new children are being brought to us. For this reason new teachers are being hired, but no new provision for added room space has been considered. The new teachers have had no experience in departmental work. Therefore, their placement in subject fields, crowded home rooms, etc., brings many problems."

Problems involving the evaluation of students: "The school has established a policy that students shall be graded by a system where their final mark must be based on a possible-score system. At the end of the marking period, the teacher takes 70 per cent of the possible score and at that place draws the line. I find trouble in assigning proper value to typing projects so that the 70 per cent figure is reasonable in relationship to those that should pass or fail. Also I have always wondered if it is a good policy to fail any pupil."

"A serious problem to me is the grading of commercial subjects. I am particularly concerned with the skill subjects such as typing, bookkeeping, shorthand, and office machines."

"In —— county schools, the final grade is the average of eight grades—six six-week grades, mid-semester test, and final test. Regardless of skill attained at the completion of the school term, the student's final grade must be averaged. In my opinion, because of various levels

but the improvement of teachers and all those who *influence them* in their direct conduction of the educational process.

TYPICAL TEACHER PROBLEMS

Because the general public has most of its direct educational contacts with teachers, it is of primary importance to consider the types of problems faced by teachers. The function of supervision is to help teachers solve problems that hinder the effectiveness of the educational process, not to assign low ratings to them because they cannot solve the problems.

As the teaching profession continues to increase in stature, it is reasonable to expect that each new generation of teachers will be more self-directive in a creative way when faced with a problem situation. This does not mean that they will not need supervision or that they will be better teachers than those who have preceded them. It does mean, if teacher-training institutions are adequately assuming their preservice responsibilities, that the new teachers will have been exposed to more direct experiences in employing group processes to solve common educational problems and in using the combined thoughts of groups of like interests to solve individual problems.

It would be all but impossible to make a list of typical teacher problems that would be approved by all educators. Consequently the listing and statement of the problem areas that follows has been designed merely to indicate that all personnel associated with the educational process have problems that create a demand for supervision.

Problems involving attitudes: "I'm having trouble securing equipment for the gymnasium. My school board is too athletically inclined; they feel it is all right just to play games in gym class. They will buy anything as long as it is for athletics; but when it comes to apparatus for the gym, they won't buy. The majority of the teachers in my system feel that it (physical education) is just a play period and that I have a soft job—not as much work as classroom teaching."

"I resent a little the attitude some people have toward a married woman teacher, but in my own town people have now taken me for granted."

"The most pronounced problem that I have to meet in my teaching is the situation resulting from being a local resident. I have to

would like to know how we can get more subject-matter methods courses offered to the undergraduate students, not only to meet certain certification requirements but to assist the students in the presentation of the material they are required to teach when they do acquire their first position."

It would be an endless task to list the multitude of problems that arise during the course of any school year. In addition to the types of problems listed above, there are such never-ending problems as: How can I adequately prepare when I have so many extra assignments? How can a teacher be rated fairly? How can you help me improve my Parent-Teacher Association meetings? I worry about correct English usage especially when I have personal tensions. If I discipline a child, how do I know I have used the right procedure? How can I be expected to do a good job if I am required to teach in a "minor" area? What should I do with faculty members who refuse to assist in the student-teacher-training program? How can I use visual aids more effectively? Etc.

The task of providing help for teachers in order to solve problems of the type listed and suggested above would be an impossible task for any one supervisor. A supervisor might readily pass on a suggestion or comment about many of these problems, but to really solve the problem is another matter. If supervision is to function adequately as a process in the total educational process, it must grow beyond the *comment stage* just as it is growing beyond the *rating stage*. The classroom under the direction of a teacher who has problems for which he discerns no immediate help is a sick classroom. It is not to be advocated that supervision should be a prescriptive process, but it must be a helpful, directional process, and the direction must be offered by persons who are professionally sympathetic to improving the individual stature of the teachers to the end of improving the total educational process.

THE NEED FOR SUPERVISION

This need is quite naturally revealed in the statements of problems made by teachers. The majority of these problems are centered about classroom work. To understand the origin of these problems, or the origin of the basic need for supervision, we must look beyond the classroom into the cultural background of the people who created

in the curve of learning for each student, the averaging of grades is not justified. To change this, it would be necessary to revise the grading system throughout the county or to make an exception of the commercial department."

Problems involving the curriculum: "The fundamental 'stumbling block' to advancement of the educational process in my school is the *traditionalism* of some of our older teachers."

"To what extent should the requirements of college preparatory mathematics be lowered to meet individual differences?"

"What can be done in social studies to improve the effectiveness of educating for international understanding?"

"One of the most difficult problems I have as an elementary principal is to innovate curriculum changes in the instruction of the elementary program."

"In the development of a secondary-school curriculum, what consideration is given to industrial personnel, industrial functions, and vocational opportunities in the area?"

Problems involving method: "How would you teach science to the slowest group in an eighth grade made up of nonreaders and very poor readers?"

"My basic problem is dividing a class into groups so that they work effectively."

"How can the use of 'units' lead to increased popularity of an 'integrated' social-studies program?"

"The area in which I can most readily use help in my job is knowing how to find time to help the retarded pupils in remedial reading, spelling, and reasoning ability and yet to be able to carry on and advance the work for the normal and above-normal learners."

Problems involving preservice training: "What is the proper procedure to follow in securing a teaching position?"

"My particular problem at the present time is the acquiring of a teaching position. With regard to this problem, I'd like to say that I think guidance and advisory policies fail the students in education in one respect. That is to say, I believe more help could be given to them for meeting certification requirements of the states surrounding ———, especially ———. Quite a few of the teachers trained in our state are being employed in other nearby states. I believe one of the main causes of this is the limited number of methods courses offered in subject-matter fields. In connection with my problem, I

in answering the question: What are the implications of this condition for our people? It is of paramount importance that our boys and girls understand that our policy of encouraging free individual initiative is basic to the release of the creative ability in our people. We must promote the understanding that our measured standard of living is higher than that of any other country in the world because we released the creative abilities of man and, once released, we cooperatively used the results of man's creation.

Understanding is basic in the total educational process. To understand, the students in our schools must be motivated to the best of their individual abilities to acquire the type of educational experiences that will cause them to be purposeful, active, participating members of our society. The dismal dimension of the picture of our life is dramatic and is easily remembered. The second dimension—that dimension for which we must develop understanding if there is to be the brightness of hope in today and tomorrow—is much more difficult and should be a challenge gladly accepted by all our people.

It would unquestionably be a difficult if not an impossible task to keep the public educational process in the United States abreast of the technological advances that result from our released creativity. Each technological advance brings added implications for our relations with one another. We would only admit defeat if we began to curb our creativity because we could not adequately meet the implications that this creativity introduces into the realm of human relationships. The public-education venture in the United States is the greatest single movement the world has ever known that is designed basically to help each individual prosper in all ways through understanding the utilization of the creative abilities of his fellow men. But in some respects we have become unfair in our attitude toward the personnel we employ to operate this venture. For example, we employ a teacher, expect him to be a creative director of the educational process, and immediately in addition to his teaching assignments we give him so many custodial and promotional duties that he does not have the time or energy to be creative in any of his assignments. If the teacher encounters problems under these conditions, those to whom he should turn for help are usually laboring under difficulties similar to his, and the result is disastrous for the students. This condition is not hopeless; it is no indication that the public-education venture is a failure. It is an example of poor

the classrooms for the purpose of perpetuating and advancing their culture.

Consider for a moment the teacher who asked, "What can be done in social studies to improve the effectiveness of educating for international understanding?" This is not a problem that has its birth in the classroom; the classroom is merely the place where the teacher and his students are confronted with it. The real problem has its origin in the fact that the parents of most of the children in school today and most of the children themselves have directly known a world composed for the most part of depression and war. They live today in the face of torrid headlines that threaten destruction for the civilization which the public schools are supposed to advance and perpetuate if we become involved in another war of a global nature. They have studied the development of civilization and have considered wars to be a solution to problems. Now they find wars have not been solutions, and they read about and hear people of prominence advocate war as a preventive measure. They have witnessed the development of our country based upon the family as a basic social unit. Now they must begin to question the integrity of this unit as they witness not only our alarming divorce rate but the alarming amount of publicity given to our divorce processes. They have been encouraged to accept certain philosophies as right and just, and then they are confused because those who grasp for the material things seem to be those who have found happiness. As a nation they witness our actions of cooperation and helpfulness, and a cursory evaluation of the program seems to prove the policy to be wrong.

It is easy to be discouraged and to look for prescriptions that will alleviate the surface tensions that we have been experiencing. But the dismal picture painted above has another dimension and this second dimension is quite bright. The brightness has been dulled and is sometimes forgotten because we have concentrated upon the teaching of facts to students in school and have neglected the development of understandings and attitudes. For example, it is a fact that there is more measured horsepower behind every man, woman, and child in the United States than in any other country in the world. As a fact, this is an interesting revelation and almost any teacher could construct an examination question around it. The importance of this information is not to be found in the memorization of it but

be established or maintained if any one individual insists on dictating plans of action to all the other individuals, thus destroying the respect for individual human personalities. With these statements to guide our thinking, let us turn our attention to certain classifications of educational personnel who, for organizational and administrative purposes, have been given the responsibility for supervision.

Superintendents. As the chief executive officer of the city, district, county, or state, the superintendent has many responsibilities among which is the supervision of the total school program. Since he is ultimately responsible for the effectiveness of the educational process as it is carried on in the school and, to an undetermined degree, as it is carried on in the total community environment, he must have the responsibility for studying the qualities of the teaching staff and all nonteaching educational personnel. He must adopt policies for promotion and demotion and for the transfer and elimination of all personnel directly connected with the schools. He must be able to put the adopted policies into operation when to do so would create a more effective educational environment for the boys and girls in the school community or various school communities.

In many instances the school plant presents the major problem for the superintendent.[1] It is impossible for teachers to do their best work when their classroom is a reconverted garage, hotel room, church basement, recreation room in a private home, etc. Conditions such as these isolate teachers and pupils from their respective peer groups and all but eliminate the possibility of utilizing the power that is inherent in group thinking and action. This situation not only creates a serious supervision problem but it also deprives the students in our schools of the opportunity of participating in the types of experiences that help students become strong citizens in a democratic state.

On every hand we find examples that emphasize the critical shortage of classroom space. Because of rapidly increasing enrollments and a growing shortage of labor and building materials, the situation is steadily becoming worse. Public schools are absolutely mandatory to the successful maintenance of a democratic state. During this critical period in our nation's development, superintendents should do all in their power to cause their school patrons to evaluate ade-

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[1] This subject is elaborated in Chap. 11.

evaluation by the general public of the needs of the schools. It is absolutely mandatory that we have public schools if we expect boys and girls to make an adequate adjustment to our complex life of today. To bring about this adjustment we must have creative educational leaders who will make the needs of the public schools known to the general public in order that the resources needed to meet these needs will be released.

The need for supervision is imperative! This need is apparent in the classrooms and school offices in every school district. However, it does not have its birth in these classrooms but in the total community that sponsors these classrooms. To understand the problems faced by the teachers and administrators in any school district is to understand that community. If the process of supervision is to make its maximum contribution, those responsible for the process must not be content merely to hear a teacher's problem, but they must mobilize the resources inherent in that teacher's fellow workers in order adequately to understand the forces that brought the problem into existence. When these forces are understood, the teacher with the problem and his fellow educators will be in an intelligent position to recommend a course of action that will make the total educational process in that community more effective.

THE RESPONSIBILITY FOR SUPERVISION

In order that the educational personnel in any school may function effectively, a definite program for the supervision of the educational process should be planned. Before assigning the responsibility for the supervisory process to any individual or organization of individuals, it is necessary to recall that the function of supervision is to give direction to, and provide critical evaluations of, the educational process.

The democratic way of life is achieved through the process of human cooperation, a process in which each man recognizes his dependence upon every other man. To be an effective participant in the cooperative process, man must employ the method of reflective thought. Cooperation to be effective must be carried on in an atmosphere of friendliness, an atmosphere in which a free exchange of opinions and beliefs can be stated to the end that commonly accepted objectives can be achieved. An atmosphere of cooperation cannot

atmosphere in which such an invitation can be issued with no feeling of fear or personal degradation.

The role of a supervisor can only be filled by a person who can stimulate groups to action. He must be able to bring people of like interests together and cause them to share their experiences in order that each may select from the others those methods and techniques that will make them more effective directors of the educational process. He must be able to create an atmosphere in which the barriers between teachers and the boundary lines between teachers' rooms are broken down so that they will feel free to visit and learn from one another. He must create an atmosphere in which teachers want to know how the various areas of knowledge can be integrated in order that boys and girls may develop complete rather than partial understanding.

Supervisors are more abundant in the elementary schools than in the secondary schools. At both levels the main emphasis of supervision is placed upon special areas such as art, physical education, and health. In the elementary schools a great amount of emphasis has been placed upon reading. This particular area has been emphasized not only because reading has a great amount of educational utility but because false social prestige is usually assigned to the youngster who learns to read early in his school experiences. It is interesting to observe, probably because most children who continue in school do learn to read, that the supervisory emphasis on reading diminishes at the secondary level.

Supervisors must always cooperate with the rest of the educational personnel in a program of educational leadership that will eventually destroy false standards. An adequate program of evaluation for teachers and students cannot exist in a community that maintains false standards either through ignorance or defiance of the growing body of educational research.

The Principal. The general public has most of its school contacts in educational matters that pertain to supervision with the principal. In the larger schools the principal is primarily an administrative official, and sometimes his all-important delegated authority for supervision of the educational process is forgotten. Unfortunately in larger schools the major personal contacts between some of the principals and their teachers and pupils are in matters pertaining to discipline. In the smaller schools we sometimes find teacher-principals;

quately the necessity of supporting a continuous building and maintenance program.

In order to be effective, the school superintendent must delegate various phases of the supervisory responsibility to qualified persons. Under no condition should such delegation of responsibility be made for any reason other than to improve the effectiveness of the educational process. The delegation of supervisory responsibility should carry with it the power to act, for only when the power of action has been conferred will the supervisor have the freedom necessary for the release of his initiative.

The superintendent must not become an independent dictatorial agent. He must be responsible to the board of education and should attempt to exercise the type of educational leadership that would cause the people of any school district to elect a board that adequately represents their educational will. The superintendent should recommend educational policies to the board for their approval, and if a policy is disapproved by a majority of the board, he should be required to have an alternate plan of action. If this procedure is followed, the school community to which the superintendent is responsible will have a continuous process of education, democratically administered, and geared to the pace at which the community is ready to advance.

Supervisors. Before a person is appointed to the position of supervisor, he should have demonstrated that he is capable of providing leadership, inspiration, and direction to that phase of the educational program for which he has been given the responsibility. He should also be able to design, with the cooperation of the educational personnel involved in his delegated area of responsibility, evaluative techniques that will promote the continued achievement of both students and teachers.

Because money is not readily available for adequate supervisory programs, it is impossible for supervisors to devote continued periods of time to individual teachers in their classrooms. It is probably not desirable, educationally or financially, that the supervisor spend any continued time in any one classroom unless he is invited to a room by a teacher who feels a personal need for direction or who wishes to demonstrate a method or technique that he feels the supervisor should consider with the total group. The supervisor and teachers should continually work for the type of educational

G. Additional specifications to be considered in the evaluation of the school.

  1. In order that the teaching staff may function with the highest degree of efficiency, a definite program for the supervision of instruction should be planned.

     a. The Superintendent and Principal should devote considerable time to the supervision of instruction.

     b. Supervisors should be employed, wherever possible, to assist the Superintendent.

     c. The state courses of study should be followed. They should be enriched with material to meet the needs of the local community. Local courses are to be approved by the Superintendent.

     d. A careful evaluation of the success of the teacher should be made by the Superintendent in cooperation with the Principal and Supervisors.

  2. If the instruction is to be made effective, the school must be well organized and carefully administered.

     a. The teaching staff should be well organized. The Principal should delegate certain responsibilities to members of his staff according to their particular abilities and fitness.

       (1) The delegation of responsibility carries with it the authority to act and the obligation to show results.

It is interesting to note that both states have refrained from placing the ultimate responsibility for supervision in the hands of any one person. The Pennsylvania statement reads: "In conjunction with the County Superintendent, he [the supervising principal] shall have responsibility over all matters pertaining to general administration and supervision. . . ." The Indiana statement reads: "The Superintendent and Principal should devote considerable time to the supervision of instruction." These statements are used at this point merely as examples, not to prove a point of law. Supervision is a process that can be required by law but it is extremely doubtful if a legal requirement can make supervision, which is to a large extent a problem of human relationships, effective.

All teachers need supervision if they are to attain their greatest professional stature. The premise that teachers do not receive helpful supervision is supported by Bail's study [4] in which he reports that

[4] P. M. Bail, "Do Teachers Receive the Kind of Supervision They Desire," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 40, pp. 713–716, May, 1947.

these are administrative officials who in addition to their administrative duties teach part of each school day. There is some reason to believe that the teacher-principal is more aware of those phases of the educational process in his school that need supervision, but there is an equal amount of reason to believe that he does not have the time to devote to supervision.

It is very difficult to draw a line between the administrative and supervisory duties of school principals. Generally the supervision sphere is thought to be those duties that are directly concerned with the teaching process. Unquestionably the teaching process is the most important process operating in any school. This being true all other duties of the principal, including those that can be classified as purely administrative, exist only to make the supervisory and teaching process more effective.

The *School Laws of Pennsylvania* furnish an example of legal material that provides for a type of administrative official known as a "supervising principal." In part, the duties of this official are set forth in the following quotation: [2]

> In conjunction with the County Superintendent, he [the supervising principal] shall have responsibility over all matters pertaining to general administration and supervision of the public schools in matters relating to such general practice as courses of study, methods of teaching, rating of teachers, discipline and conduct in all schools in his district or districts and shall report the same, when required, to the county superintendent and the respective boards of school directors.

An examination of the preceding quotation reveals that this law recognizes the need for integration of the work of the superintendent, principal, and school directors. Whether or not this law operates this way in actual practice is quite another matter. The important factor to be considered at this time is the fact that the law does imply an interrelationship between these three administrative segments.

State school codes and policies vary with respect to their suggestions or mandates for supervision. For comparative purposes, the following quotation from *The Administrative Handbook for the Schools of Indiana* is included: [3]

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[2] *School Laws of Pennsylvania*, Section 1161, p. 152, Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin 2, 1949.

[3] *The Administrative Handbook for the Schools of Indiana*, pp. 94–95, Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin 200, 1948.

The Department Head. In a great many large secondary schools, administrative or semiadministrative officials known as heads or chairmen of departments are found. Frequently these officials have as their primary responsibility the process of supervision in their departments. There seems to be little agreement among educators as to what the requirements for holding such a position should be. In some schools the department headship seems to have been established for the primary objective of providing a method of giving salary increments to superior teachers. Needless to say, such a procedure defeats the purpose for which it was created because the increased salary almost always brings increased responsibilities that are indirectly associated with classroom teaching and as a consequence superior teachers are removed from the classrooms. This situation points to one of the most important supervisory and administrative tasks of the future which is to find some acceptable method of recognizing superior teaching other than making administrative officials or semiadministrative officials of superior teachers. For example, the procedure of awarding equal yearly salary increments to all teachers who have been rated satisfactory the preceding year is obviously unfair to those teachers who are capable of and only content to do a superior job. However, to adopt any other scheme, it would be necessary to develop some satisfactory plan of "merit rating." At the present time no commonly accepted plan of merit rating has been developed, but those states that are working toward such programs are to be commended.

The position of department leadership could certainly be developed into a very fine supervisory position. It is certainly not the fault of the present department heads that their positions do not carry more supervisory responsibilities, or as Jacobson [6] has pointed out:

> That the position does not exist as a supervisory office must be charged to the account of the official responsible for establishing a position which he claims to be supervisory without allowing adequate time for supervision. It offers opportunities if time and authority are granted to do the job.

[6] P. B. Jacobson, W. C. Reavis, and J. D. Logsdon, *Duties of School Principals*, p. 498, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1950.

40.2 per cent of the school personnel covered in the study receive "regular inspection only," 29.2 per cent receive "very little supervision," 25.7 per cent receive "no supervision," and 4.3 per cent receive "democratic helpful supervision." This study included 219 secondary-school teachers, 205 elementary-school teachers, 34 principals, and 2 superintendents. A research study conducted by the author and devoted primarily to the statistical establishment of a highly selected list of school practices as "good" revealed that teachers would signify a practice to be good but would add a note stating that they did not employ it. As a result of this occurrence, the conclusions for the study contained the following statement: "When teachers know what the desirable factors are that should be used to improve instruction and do not use them, it is fair to assume that they need more competent leadership."

The teachers employed in the research study noted above were from schools having enrollments of 500 or more students. If the preceding quotation serves to illustrate the point that teachers in large schools need supervision, it is surely fair to assume that teachers in smaller schools, where more rapid turnover is an added factor to the impediment of the educational process, need supervision.

Maul's study for the National Education Association revealed that 15,507 secondary teachers and 20,741 elementary teachers were new to their positions in the fall of 1948. Since this study drew data from twenty-two states and the District of Columbia, it is impossible to state how many teachers were new to their positions in the other twenty-six states.[5] The supervision problem posed by this rate of turnover of teachers is all but appalling. When the supervisory problems associated with the teachers who were not new to their positions is added to the problems created by those who are new, we begin to obtain some conception of the scope of the supervision problem.

Principals have many functions to perform and are certainly not entirely to blame if their school communities fail to provide or are unable to afford an adequate supervisory staff. However, the function of supervision is so important that principals should be encouraged to evaluate the budgeting of their time and energies in order to apply as great an amount as possible to the supervision process.

[5] R. C. Maul, *Teacher Supply and Demand in the United States*, p. 14, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1949.

education is to continue to fulfill its responsibility to society, the social-utility value of its subject-matter offerings must be constantly analyzed. Dewhurst and his associates indicate the trend toward "utility" in the following statement: [8]

Perhaps the major development in the content of public education has been the emphasis upon utility. Where we used to recite "pieces," we now practice ordinary polite conversation; where we used to study Latin, we now study Spanish, or some other modern language we are likely to use; where we used to learn the "drum-and-trumpet" history of successive wars, we now study current social problems in the light of their historical development; where we used to begin learning to read by memorizing the alphabet, we now begin to read by reading words; where we used to study physiology, we now study how to keep in good health.

The prospects for a bright future for public education are very evident. Virtually all professional educational meetings at all school levels are busily examining their programs in order to determine how they may further the effectiveness of the educational process. To an ever greater extent, teachers are translating the results of educational research and theory into practicum in their classrooms. A courageous teaching profession can certainly expect a future filled with uncounted possibilities to direct a more effective educational process for boys and girls—this is the nature of teaching.

IMPROVEMENT THROUGH GROUP ACTION

If supervision is to be effective, it is imperative that some person or persons be assigned the responsibility for stimulating groups of teachers with common interests to share their educational experiences to the end that a more effective educational process will be available to boys and girls. The term "group action," as it is used here, refers to action by individuals as well as groups who are concerned about more than individual interests and who will take part of the responsibility for advancing the welfare of all persons touched by their group. In such a process self-interests will be forgotten, and the area in which the work is done may be a hitherto untouched frontier for that group. The function of the supervisor, following

[8] J. F. Dewhurst and Associates, *America's Need and Resources*, p. 304, The Twentieth Century Fund, Inc., New York, 1947.

Any consideration of department headships involves the problem of the effect of "departments" upon the education of boys and girls. In elementary schools, content and methods of teaching are showing progress toward the treatment of education as an integrated and continuous process. Secondary schools are not showing the same rate of progress primarily because subject-matter lines are still drawn rather sharply. The task of integrating the subject matter at the secondary level into a common body of knowledge has been complicated by the rapid growth of enrollment in the secondary school and by the rapid expansion of the curriculum. In addition to these factors, many secondary school teachers are over specialized, and administration is all but mandated to departmentalize these specialists.

It is not necessary to argue the good and bad points of departmentalization if we conceive the purpose of departments to be that of organizing the subject matter of the secondary and, in some cases, the elementary-school levels. For example, we would all probably agree that there are very few secondary teachers who can do an equally efficient job of teaching art, algebra, English, social studies, physics, physical education, etc. We would also agree that most secondary-school students should have educational experiences in more than one of these areas. We would also agree that a great many teachers could teach more than one of these subjects, or parts of these subjects, especially if these subjects were closely related, for example, American literature and American history. Unfortunately in the minds of many teachers and administrators, departments are conceived to be self-sustaining entities and not merely administrative schemes to facilitate the process of school administration. As a result, a boy or girl who is required to take some form of mathematics and later elects to take a physical science or some phase of industrial arts may find the mathematics he or she has learned is not applicable to a practical problem. Naturally such a situation will vary with each individual student, but the fact that it can exist creates a tremendous problem for supervision and should cause all of us to analyze our conception of the function of departmentalization.[7]

Public education may well be challenged to prove its effectiveness in meeting the "life adjustment" needs of boys and girls. If public

[7] This controversial subject is discussed in detail in Chap. 3.

building, but the maximum educational force that can be exerted by a school system cannot be mobilized in this manner. The force exerted by all the teachers of all the buildings working together is bound to be much greater than that exerted by the teachers of any one building alone. However, if the persons responsible for supervision in one building can stimulate the teachers in that building to action and then direct them toward realizing the objective of their action, an infectious desire for similar action might develop and spread to the other buildings.

Fourth, the administrators of a school system during the course of the spring semester might establish a series of meetings for the purpose of evaluating the progress which the teachers and students of their school system are making toward the established objectives. These evaluative meetings reveal that the administrative and supervisory officials together with the teachers and students in the system are failing to achieve "The Objectives for Civic Responsibility." As a group, the administrators decide to ask the teachers for their help. This request for help might take the form of a questionnaire to be completed by the teachers and returned to the administrator. A questionnaire of this type ought to include an introduction describing the evaluative results of the administrative meetings and ample space for the teachers to suggest possible methods of working on the problem. The principal of each building should meet with the personnel responsible for supervision in his building and should thoroughly discuss with them the problem and the approach to be made to the teachers. Following this meeting, the principal and his supervisory staff should distribute the questionnaire sheets to the teachers at a general meeting or in small group meetings; ample time should be provided for the teachers to discuss or ask questions about the problem and the questionnaire. The teachers should be permitted to keep the sheets for several days before returning them to a common "box" in the general office.

When the sheets have all been returned, it is imperative that the administrators study each one carefully and complete their study by carefully categorizing the suggestions that have been made. Accompanied by a note thanking the teachers for their cooperation, a copy of the categorization of the suggestions should be placed in the hands of each teacher. Following the distribution of these lists to each teacher, the administrative and supervisory officials should prepare

the initial stimulation, is to direct and evaluate the changes of behavior in the members of the group and those touched by the group.

Group action must always be determined by the objectives of education. For example, one of the better statements of the objectives for education is that developed by the Educational Policies Commission.[9] This statement includes "The Objectives for Civic Responsibility," including social justice, social activity, social understanding, etc. If public educational institutions are to make their maximum contribution toward the achievement of these objectives, all teachers in a particular school system must direct their efforts toward those objectives. Four possible approaches to this problem are readily apparent:

First, a school administrator might inform his staff at a general meeting that they are to do everything possible during the school year to achieve "The Objectives for Civic Responsibility." Following the meeting the teachers will disband. Some might ask for a definition of the objectives; some who think they understand the objectives will plan to keep a record of things they do to achieve them, just in case somebody asks for an accounting; some will promptly forget the mandate; and the principal will have it recorded as part of the minutes of the meeting. Teacher-pupil growth will not result from this process, and the process cannot be classified as supervision.

Second, in the days immediately following the general meeting, individuals responsible for the supervisory process might visit each teacher and tell them to develop some plan for achieving the objectives because some type of special recognition will be granted to the teacher who develops the best plan. The result will be the development of a noncooperative competitive attitude among the teachers, and the actual accomplishment of the objectives by the students will probably be retarded. Maximum teacher growth will not result from this process, and the process certainly cannot be classified as good supervision.

Third, in the days immediately following the general meeting, point 2 might be repeated, except that teachers of one building in a particular system might compete with teachers from another building. Group action can be undertaken by the teachers of a single

should request it. He should not use any of this time for any purpose that is not an inherent part of the program, and he should not demand that a stipulated amount of work be accomplished by a definite time.

Following the general meeting, the teachers should adjourn to the rooms assigned to their various groups.

While the group meetings are in session, the administrative and supervisory officials should visit the various groups. The purpose of these visits should be to keep the teachers aware of the availability of supervision if they should desire it. The administrative and supervisory officials should not remain long with any group unless the group requests them to do so. As the school year progresses, the administrative and supervisory officials may notice that some group is floundering. If this condition develops, the supervisory officials should mobilize all the adroitness of which they are capable, and without violating the integrity of the group or any individual in the group, they should suggest a plan or plans that might start the group on the road to progress—this is a function of supervision.

The group should always be encouraged to publicize any proposed plans that they develop. The groups should be encouraged to solicit help from other groups as well as from their supervisors. At all times the emphasis should be placed upon the fact that the force exerted by individuals working together can be much greater than that exerted by one person acting alone.

Following each workshop session, suggestions for improvement should be submitted to the administrative and supervisory officials. These suggestions are a valuable part of the evaluation for the total program and should be carefully studied by those in charge. During the course of the second semester, an active program of evaluation should be conducted by the administrative and supervisory officials. This program should include such basic elements as interviews with the chairmen who have been selected from each group and requests for written evaluations from those group members who desire to participate in the evaluation of the program. The results of these interviews and written statements should be combined with the suggestions that have been submitted during the course of the year, and a composite evaluative report should be placed in the hands of each teacher. When the teachers have had ample opportunity to re-

a proposed plan of action for implementing the type of suggestion or suggestions that were most frequently mentioned by the teachers. During a general meeting in each building, the principals should distribute a copy of the plan of action to each teacher. They should encourage the teachers to think about the plan and they should set a tentative date for beginning to place the plan into operation.

At this point let us assume that a majority of the teachers recommended that the administrative officials provide one half day of school time each month during the course of the coming school year for a "workshop" type of program. It was further recommended that a list of possible groups be set up, perhaps by subject-matter areas, and that the teachers be permitted to select the group with which they desired to work.

If this were the case, the date for beginning the action would necessarily be sometime during the first month of the fall semester. Under these conditions each teacher should receive during the summer months a letter indicating the exact date when the action would begin and a list of the groups with instructions to check the group with which he wants to work. When each teacher has selected a work group, he should return the list to the principal of his building.

When the lists have been returned, the principals in a meeting with the superintendent should decide what building or buildings to use, determine the number of rooms with adequate space that should be available for each group, clear their school schedules so that all teachers could attend, and lay plans for informing the general public as to the purpose for, and the nature of, the proposed action. This type of activity is primarily a function of administration.

Shortly after school has reopened for the fall semester, each teacher should be given a copy of the proposed mechanics that have been established for implementing the program.

The first meeting of the workshop sessions should be preceded by a general meeting conducted by the superintendent. He should review the work that has been done to set up the program that is about to begin, describe the nature of the problem to be considered, encourage the teachers to forward recommendations to their administrative or supervisory officials for continually improving the program, and he should place his time and the time of the other administrative and supervisory officials at the disposal of the teachers if they

SUMMARY

Supervision is a necessity if maximum teacher and administrator growth is to occur. The ultimate objective of supervision is to create an ever-better total learning environment for boys and girls.

Many teachers consider supervision to be the policing aspect of administration. If supervision is to be effective, this conception must be destroyed, and administrators must exert every possible effort to develop the concept that supervision is a helping process. Dictatorial administrative policies must be abolished, and administrators must mobilize the power of the thinking of individual teachers and of teachers as a group in order to offer constantly improving educational services to the communities they serve.

No administrator can individually administer all the educational processes delegated to him. Consequently he must select qualified personnel to help him adequately to fulfill the obligations of his position.

act to the evaluative report, a plan for promoting the continuation of the program should be developed.

Group action is often a slow process, because while the thinking of a group might reveal changes, it is not essentially the group that changes but the individuals as individuals who compose the group. In a process such as that described above, the proposals from the groups for change might not be as far reaching as the administration desires. At this point the administrators and supervisors must possess the quality of patience and the ability to give careful direction, for teachers as well as students must be encouraged, not permitted, to learn at their individual rates of ability to learn. During the continuous course of a program such as this, the conviction must be developed that possible actions considered by the groups are important and that the teachers as individuals and as a group have security in the school and community.

A natural question at this point would be: How does group action function when an individual teacher approaches a supervisor with a problem that has arisen in a classroom? To complicate the situation let us assume that this individual teacher is the type of person who believes his fellow teachers will think him weak if they know he has approached the supervisor with a problem. Supervision cannot be effective when prescriptive. Nevertheless, there are some basic truths that the supervisor and teacher must recognize together. First, the teacher's problem cannot be disassociated from the group in which it had its birth. Second, the problem that arose in the classroom group cannot be disassociated from the community in which the classroom group has its origin. In other words, if the supervisor attempts to prescribe, an acceptable superficial effect of doubtful quality might become evident, but the problem will remain unsolved. However, if the supervisor is interested in teacher growth as a result of problem-solving activity, he, the individual teacher involved, the classroom group, and ultimately the community or segments of the community must become involved in the problem. When this condition prevails, group action will prevail because the solutions to problems in a democracy are found only when individuals as individuals so modify their behavior that the modifications are advantageous not only for the individuals but also for the groups of which they are a part.

program from chance and making certain that desired goals are attained is the defining of objectives.

SELECTED STATEMENTS OF OBJECTIVES

In the period following the First World War and ending during the beginning of the all but disastrous depression of the 1930's, Alexander J. Inglis was probably the leading authority on secondary education. According to Inglis,[1]

Three important groups of activities require the participation of the individual and establish three fundamental aims for secondary education, as for all education, in America. Those three groups of activities are distinguished accordingly as they involve primarily: (1) participation in the duties of citizenship and in the not-directly economic relations of cooperative group life; (2) participation in the production and distribution of economic utilities; (3) the life of the individual as a relatively free and independent personality. Thus the three fundamental aims of secondary education are:

(1) The preparation of the individual as a prospective citizen and cooperating member of society—the Social–Civic Aim;
(2) The preparation of the individual as a prospective worker and producer—the Economic–Vocational Aim;
(3) The preparation of the individual for those activities which, while primarily involving individual action, the utilization of leisure, and the development of personality, are of great importance to society—the Individualistic–Avocational Aim.

It must be recognized that these three aims are not mutually exclusive, but rather that they are in a high degree interrelated and interdependent. Taken together they constitute the Social Aim of secondary education in the broadest sense of the term. Every individual as a social unit is at the same time a citizen, a worker, and a relatively independent personality. The three phases of his life cannot be divorced, and in the secondary school preparation for no one of those phases of life should be neglected.

One of the most widely publicized statements of objectives was formulated by the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education.[2] This list is commonly called "the seven cardinal principles of secondary education" and includes objectives for

[1] A. J. Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education*, pp. 367–368, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1918.

[2] *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, pp. 11–16, Bureau of Education Bulletin 35, 1917.

Chapter 2. THE OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION

Those responsible for supervision must continually evaluate the help and direction that they provide all persons associated with the educational process, in terms of the increased effectiveness with which students attain the objectives that have been established for education. Statements of objectives that are publicized are usually made by prominent educators or educational commissions. These statements represent those areas of our total life pattern in which a person must learn to operate effectively or else fail to meet the challenge of living in our modern world.

The objectives for education are constantly changing. This condition necessarily exists because education would become stagnated if the objectives were not advanced and elaborated each time definite progress is made toward their attainment. At the present time the fundamental change is revealed in the trend toward stating objectives in terms of attitudes and competencies that an individual should possess in order to live effectively. When those responsible for education fail to make progress toward the objectives, they malign the great faith that the people have demonstrated in public education.

Objectives should never be changed for transient reasons. When various statements of objectives for education are examined, certain similarities are found to exist between them. It is the responsibility of the teachers and administrators in each school or school district to study the various statements of objectives in order to determine which set most adequately meets the needs of their school or school district. In some cases the personnel of a school or school district may want to develop their own set of objectives to accompany the development of a philosophy for their school. This is certainly a very commendable undertaking, but all who desire to do this should be counseled to consider carefully the statements that have been published in order to profit by the thinking and research that have gone into their construction. The first step in freeing the educational

objectives is very definitive, and if they are studied with the preceding assumption and explanation in mind, they will prove very challenging to the educational thinking of the present day.

Douglass has developed the following list of "Types of Life Needs as Educational Objectives": [5]

1. Education for citizenship.
2. Education for home membership.
3. Education for leisure life.
4. Vocational efficiency.
5. Physical and mental health.
6. Preparation for continued living.

The Educational Policies Commission in their publication *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* [6] set forth the objectives that follow:

1. The Objectives of Self Realization—The Inquiring Mind, Speech, Reading, Writing, Number, Sight and Hearing, Health, Health Habits, Public Health, Recreation, Intellectual Interests, Esthetic Interests, Character.

2. The Objectives of Human Relationship—Respect for Humanity, Friendships, Cooperation, Courtesy, Appreciation of the Home, Conservation of the Home, Homemaking, Democracy in the Home.

3. The Objectives of Economic Efficiency—Occupational Information, Occupational Choice, Occupational Efficiency, Occupational Adjustment, Occupational Appreciation, Personal Economics, Consumer Judgment, Efficiency in Buying, Consumer Protection.

4. The Objectives of Civic Responsibility—Social Justice, Social Activity, Social Understanding, Critical Judgment, Tolerance, Conservation, Social Applications of Science, World Citizenship, Law Observance, Economic Literacy, Political Citizenship, Devotion to Democracy.

If we accept the premise that growth is a continuous process, we must translate some accepted list of objectives into terms that apply to the group that is trying to achieve them. The purpose of public education is not to teach boys and girls, or more mature groups, to

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[5] H. R. Douglass, *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America,* pp. 17–25, American Council on Education, 1937.

[6] *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy,* Educational Policies Commission, 1938. (This publication is no longer in print. The main points have been incorporated into a volume entitled, *Policies for Education in American Democracy.*)

1. Health.
2. Command of the fundamental processes.
3. Worthy home membership.
4. Vocation efficiency.
5. Citizenship.
6. Worthy use of leisure time.
7. Ethical character.

Franklin Bobbitt [3] analyzed the broad range of human experience into major fields. His method of "activity analysis" revealed objectives for the following areas:

1. Social intercommunication.
2. Maintenance of physical efficiency.
3. Efficient citizenship.
4. General social contacts and relationships.
5. Leisure occupations.
6. General mental efficiency.
7. Religious attitudes and activities.
8. Parental responsibilities.
9. Unspecialized practical activities.
10. Occupational activities.

The "activity analysis" conducted by Bobbitt was based upon the following assumption: [4]

. . . education is to prepare men and women for the activities of every kind which make up, or which ought to make up, well rounded adult life; that it has no other purpose; that everything should be done with a view to this purpose; and that nothing should be included which does not serve this purpose.

Education is primarily for adult life, not for child life. Its fundamental responsibility is to prepare for the fifty years of adulthood, not for the twenty years of childhood and youth.

In developing this assumption, Bobbitt was attempting to dispel the idea held by many high school teachers that the only purpose of education is always to prepare for the next step of schooling. It is Bobbitt's idea that we educate for the long stretch of human existence that lies beyond the college. In their complete form, this list of

[3] Franklin Bobbitt, *How to Make a Curriculum*, pp. 8–31, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Mass., 1924.
[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 8–9.

tudes and competencies, in this case "competency" in relation to health knowledge and habits but "attitude" toward public health.

Public education rightfully has always represented the educational will of the people or segments of the people. Unfortunately, as our country grew and expanded through one turbulent frontier after another, and as the released creative ability of our people combined with our tremendous natural resources to place us in a position of world leadership, we were all but forced to offer an education that stressed preparation for materialistic achievement and individual success during the period of adulthood. This type of education did not offer individuals experiences in adjusting to each other and especially did not offer groups the opportunity to adjust one to the other. The highest social values, those values so often realized during the performance of unselfish tasks for others, were neglected. Now we are surely engaged in a race between education and catastrophe, and educators have belatedly realized that public educators must accept the responsibility for training our youth to live effectively in a world in which men are certainly interdependent. The understanding which must precede the development of an appreciation of the nature of this interdependent relationship can only be promoted by an established educational program in a world at peace.

The strength of our democratic society does not lie in its written laws but in the attitude of its people as individuals toward other people. As a result of the efforts of our educational leaders and those with whom they are associated in our great educational venture, we are progressing toward the goal of becoming our brother's keeper. Unfortunately we publicize the incidents wherein we fail in this great program and accept almost too complacently the legion of instances wherein we have known success. We are often like the teacher of thirty boys and girls who complained because two of them were judged to be incompetent readers and forgot to mention the success achieved by the remaining twenty-eight. We often compare the practices of our democratic form of government with the idealogical theory of some other governmental blueprint and find ours wanting; but when we compare our democratic governmental practice to any other form of governmental practice we find ours far superior.

We in America are learning to live together, and the only sound route to permanent peace is for the people of the world to learn to live together. We have developed as the champion of enlightenment,

live only for the present but to present the types of experiences from day to day that will help them live more effectively tomorrow. These experiences must be geared to the rate of growth of which the individuals in any particular school are capable. These experiences must always be planned on a psychologically sound basis. For example, the child who is introduced to the concept of citizenship in the elementary school should first consider citizenship in the schoolroom, which is very familiar to him, and then expand his concept to include the corridors, toilets, playground, route to and from school, etc. In other words, progressing at the rate at which he and his group can make satisfactory progress, he should begin with the familiar and proceed to the unfamiliar. In this manner the child acquires both knowledge and understanding.

As the child increases in both knowledge and understanding, he will be more capable of responding to an analytical approach. For example, he may consider the theory of world citizenship, which, as far as he is concerned, is an unknown thing he cannot see, cannot touch, and has not experienced. By mobilizing the knowledge gained from previous experiences and by carefully selecting those that apply to this problem, he will be able to develop an understanding of the theory.

CHANGES AND MODIFICATIONS IN THE OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION

Our basic democratic philosophy of life is not transient; consequently, we have generally maintained objectives for democratic citizenship, mental and physical health, economic and vocational efficiency, family living, and individual competency in selected basic fields of knowledge that enable one to communicate effectively with his fellow men. In tracing similarities between the various statements, it is interesting to note that Inglis and Bobbitt did not employ the term "health." Inglis refers to the development of "personality" of which health is unquestionably a part, and Bobbitt refers to "mental and physical efficiency." The more recently developed statements all employ the term health, reaching a type of climax in the statement by the Educational Policies Commission where objectives for health (knowledge), health habits, and public health are set forth. This exemplifies the trend away from stating objectives as specific abilities to be acquired and toward the development of atti-

relationship between the teacher, pupils, and the learning experiences. When this first task has been accomplished, the supervisor should evaluate the effectiveness of the philosophy in action. If the philosophy epitomizes the tenets of democracy in action, the teachers will be abolishing the concept of "I achieve the objectives" and will be accepting the challenge of "we help the students achieve the objectives." The achievement of the objectives for education must be a group undertaking and each individual teacher can only do so much. If the students fail to achieve the objectives for education, no one teacher is responsible, the group is responsible. This should be a comforting thought to all persons in the educational profession, because as individuals we are all too frail and fallible to bear the immense responsibility that would otherwise be ours.

Supervisors are usually associated with subject-matter areas or divisions of subject-matter areas. To introduce coherently the problems that arise from this type of association, it is necessary to consider at least one prevailing plan of school organization.

Educational curriculums are supposed to be adapted to meet the needs and capacities of human beings at various stages in their process of growth and development. As a result we find the elementary school divided into the primary and intermediate divisions representing the first three and second three grades respectively. Following the completion of the sixth grade, the student enters the junior-high-school division which is composed of grades 7, 8, and 9. When the child has completed the work of the ninth grade, he enters the senior high school which is composed of grades 10, 11, and 12. There are many variations to this pattern among which we find school districts supporting kindergartens and post-senior-high-school educational programs. Variations are also found that affect the grade level at which education ceases to be elementary and becomes secondary. For discussion purposes, let us consider the supervisor's contribution to the objectives under the 6–3–3 plan of organization.

In the primary and intermediate division of the elementary school we find, rather commonly, five classifications of supervisors that can be designated as general, reading, art, music, and physical education supervisors. Examples can be found ranging from situations in which one supervisor in each of these divisions services an entire county to situations in which a single school building has the full-time services of a supervisor in each of these classifications. There are some coun-

equality of opportunity, justice, freedom, and respect for the individual human personality. Through our program of education we have developed as a people to the position of world leadership. The responsibilities that we must assume as leaders are manifold. It is in the process of assuming these responsibilities that we find the motivation for changing or modifying our objectives for education. Surely no one would consider this to be a transient reason.

RELATIONSHIP OF THE SUPERVISOR TO THE OBJECTIVES

Through their directional function, supervisors help teachers to increase the effectiveness of their teaching. As the teachers become more effective, the students in their classes will come closer to a realization of the objectives for education. This realization, translated into action, is the ultimate desired end of the total educational process. It is much easier to endorse this realization than to understand how the supervisor can more effectively-promote the attainment of it. During the process of conducting in-service training programs, classes in supervision, and in field work, it is not uncommon to hear teachers make statements like the following: "Lists of objectives for education are constructed by educational theorists. I realize that we must have objectives but I fail to see how they are related to my classroom or how I attain them." The response to a remark such as this should be composed of two parts illustrated by referring to specific objectives, for example, "The Objectives of Civic Responsibility."

For the teacher to achieve "The Objectives of Civic Responsibility" is one problem, and it is hoped that it would not be too difficult, but for the students in his class to achieve the objectives is another matter. Naturally we are interested in teacher achievements, but we must think of teacher achievement in relation to what the students achieve. It is maintained in this book that the figure of the teacher in the classroom is central because the teacher is employed to be the professional director of the educational process. However, the maintenance of the central position of the teacher is not an objective of the educational process; it is the means to attainment of the objectives by the students. It is extremely important that the supervisor develop with his teachers a philosophy that establishes the role of the teacher in the educational process and emphasizes the

primarily associated with the ability to read school texts. Consequently, it is fair to assume that as long as we have a major reading problem in our schools there must be something wrong with the texts, the program for instruction, or with the types of medical examinations that are administered to the boys and girls. The existence of the problem, regardless of its origin, is an indication that we need more supervision. It is significant to mention at this time that in 1940 there were 11,000,000 adults [8] in our country who had gone no higher than the fourth grade. These people are for the most part semi-illiterate. Consequently, a multitude of children can expect no help or stimulation with their reading problems at home; help must come from the public schools.

In many senior high schools, the process of supervision is either confined to routine inspection or is assigned to the various heads or chairmen of departments. Some school districts maintain supervisors in specific areas such as art or physical education, but this is not the usual case. It is not uncommon to find senior high schools that maintain slow sections or retarded classes. It is intended that these classes should serve a remedial function or remove a barrier to the progress of the more capable students. There is some reason to believe that special classes might serve both of these functions, but they create a specific type of supervisory problem, they do not solve one. To maintain a strong democratic form of government, it is mandatory that we remove impediments from the progress of our more capable students. It is also mandatory that we do not create a large group of less capable people in our society who are discriminated against because, through no fault of their own, they happen to lack a great amount of measured verbal intelligence. The students who do have the ability to create must accept to a large degree the social responsibility for their creations. This responsibility, to some extent, will be to the less capable students, and it is certainly to be questioned if an attitude toward social responsibility can be developed in a public school when the various segments of the group that compose the school are continually separated.

If chairmen or heads of departments have the necessary time, training, and personal attributes necessary to do an effective job of super-

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[8] Sociological surveys indicate that families who probably fall in this group have a higher percentage of children per family than do families in which the educational level is higher.

ties that have no supervision at all, but for our discussion we must think of situations in which supervision is available to some degree.

At the junior-high-school level some form of mysterious reasoning seems to affect the attitude of administrators and teachers toward supervision. The positions of general, art, music, and physical education supervisors continue in some force, in many instances home economic supervisors are added, but there is an apparent decline in the number of reading supervisor positions. In the majority of our public schools, students are expected to become progressively more efficient in the process of independent study. As independent study is conceived by most teachers, it involves the act of reading. This gives us an example of a situation in which we deprive students and teachers of help and direction when they need it most. It is maintained by some educators that six out of every eight pupils who have reading problems are boys. Are we to assume that the boys and girls who have reading problems are automatically relieved of them when they enter the junior-high-school division? Are we to assume that girls are more capable of mastering the ability to read than boys? Is it possible that the reading material designed for our youth is more challenging to and more adequately meets the needs of girls than boys? The American people purchase great quantities of reading material. Consider the implications for the reading program of the following statement from Dewhurst: [7]

The American people spent $467 million for educational reading matter in 1940 and an additional $338 million for recreational reading. Thus, total reading cost us $805 million. Of this amount, 71 per cent was spent for newspapers and magazines, while the remainder was chiefly for books and maps.

In 1939 there were over 180 million books and almost 300 million pamphlets published in the United States. School texts were by far the most numerous class of books, with juvenile literature second and fiction third. Before World War I, fiction led all other types, but the proportion of books of this type has been steadily declining.

This quotation reveals several interesting facts, but let it suffice for the moment to point out that school texts are by far the most numerous class of books. The reading problem in public schools is

[7] J. F. Dewhurst and Associates, *America's Needs and Resources*, p. 314, The Twentieth Century Fund, Inc., New York, 1947.

3. Breadth of interest (interest in community, interest in profession, interest in pupils).
4. Carefulness (accuracy, definiteness, thoroughness).
5. Considerateness (appreciativeness, courtesy, kindliness, sympathy, tact, unselfishness).
6. Cooperation (helpfulness, loyalty).
7. Dependability (consistency).
8. Enthusiasm (alertness, animation, inspiration, spontaneity).
9. Fluency.
10. Forcefulness (courage, decisiveness, firmness, independence, purposefulness).
11. Good judgment (discretion, foresight, insight, intelligence).
12. Health.
13. Honesty.
14. Industry (patience, perseverance).
15. Leadership (initiative, self-confidence).
16. Magnetism (approachability, cheerfulness, optimism, pleasantness, sense of humor, sociability, pleasing voice, wittiness).
17. Neatness (cleanliness).
18. Open-mindedness.
19. Originality (imaginativeness, resourcefulness).
20. Progressiveness (ambition).
21. Promptness (dispatch, punctuality).
22. Refinement (conventionality, good taste, modesty, morality, simplicity).
23. Scholarship (intellectual curiosity).
24. Self-control (calmness, dignity, poise, reserve, sobriety).
25. Thrift.

These traits or qualities should be characteristic of every good citizen as well as the good teacher. We expect our teachers to direct the education of our youth in order that they, in proportion to their individual capacities, might attain the objectives for education. Consequently, we rightfully demand that teachers possess or grow toward the possession of those traits or qualities of character that all should possess.

During the course of recent years, the author has informally requested student teachers in two states to list the most outstanding qualities possessed by their critic or master teachers. It is not intended that the following list should be accepted as objective re-

vision, they could perform a function, especially in the senior high school, that they have to a large extent neglected. In a great many instances, teachers have received promotions to this position because they are superior teachers, and the administrator in charge had no other way to recognize their superior contribution. It is not fair to assume that a superior director of the learning process as it applies to boys and girls can automatically become a superior director of the learning process as it applies to teachers. Some educators condemn the existence of department heads or chairmen. This condemnation would become all but indefensible if the work and the criteria employed in the selection of department heads were redefined and redirected toward better fulfilling the responsibility for supervision.

RELATIONSHIP OF THE TEACHER TO THE OBJECTIVES

To become more effective, the teacher must first engage in a process of critical self-appraisal. It is technically impossible to categorically divide a teacher and his activities into lists of separate qualities because at any given moment the teacher functions as a complete being. However, for the purpose of convenience two broad classifications of teacher qualities, professional and personal, are sometimes employed. For example, professional qualities include knowledge of subject matter, tactful discipline, variety of teaching techniques, etc.; personal qualities include appearance, voice, patience, etc. If items such as these are accepted as examples of the personal and professional qualities which teachers should possess, then the task of listing the individual qualities that all teachers should possess appears to be easy. However, this is not the case because as individual qualities are considered, subdivisions become readily apparent forcing a somewhat arbitrary decision.

A list of eighty-three "Teacher Traits and Trait Actions" was compiled by Charters and Waples as a part of *The Commonwealth Teacher-training Study.*[*] This list was later arbitrarily reduced to the following twenty-five items:

1. Adaptability.
2. Attractiveness, personal appearance.

[*] W. W. Charters and D. Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher-training Study,* p. 18, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929.

all. A list of sample items which they might consider has been assembled by Mildred Sandison Fenner: [10]

Is my appearance as attractive as I can make it?

Am I well groomed, with hair neat, clothes pressed, shoes in good repair?

Are my hands and nails clean and well kept?

Do my teeth and breath indicate proper eating and mouth care?

If a woman, are my cosmetics used conservatively and skillfully?

If a man, am I properly shaved?

Do I stand erect, rather than leaning or lounging on the desk?

Is my carriage graceful, with head up, shoulders back, chest out, stomach in, weight on toes, with arms and legs swinging easily?

Are my clothes suitable, becoming, well kept, and of sufficient variety to avoid monotony for the students?

Do I avoid mannerisms, such as fidgeting, twirling a pencil?

To use techniques such as this to their maximum advantage, teachers must be relatively self-directive and aware of the advantages that follow group action. A competent supervisor can stimulate, direct, help, and evaluate, but he *cannot* directly force a teacher to change his behavior without violating the respect he should possess for that individual teacher's personality. Within the concept of this same thought, a teacher who needs to be directly forced to change his behavior in order more effectively to direct the educational process is a liability to the teaching profession and should be relieved of his professional responsibilities.

The suggested technique for improving personal appearance can be applied by each individual teacher to almost all phases of his life. It is well that lists such as the one suggested be developed by groups rather than by individuals because the group will be more objective. Most of us live so intimately with our faults that we do not recognize them as such until they are drawn out in an impersonal way by the group. A guidepost at this point would be to remember that the way a man thinks determines his course, but the way men think determines the destiny of groups.

Limited only by generalized state and local regulations, teachers are responsible for selecting the types of learning materials and methods that are to be used to help our youth progress toward the

[10] M. S. Fenner, *The Growing Teacher*, p. 5, National Education Association, Personal Growth Leaflet 20, Washington, D.C.

search; however, it should be pointed out that the first four items have seldom changed position following their original listing:

1. Knowledge of the subject matter.
2. Interest in the students.
3. Ability to speak on the level of the students.
4. Patience.
5. Sense of humor.
6. Good speaking voice.
7. Personal appearance.
8. Control of physical environment.
9. Tactful discipline.
10. Variety of teaching techniques.
    a. Ease of movement before the class.
11. Ability to get along with other teachers.
12. Motivates pupil participation.
13. Employs methods that provide individual attention.
14. Ability to write on blackboard.

The major emphasis in this list appears to be upon the possession of a certain amount of knowledge and employing effective methods of communicating this knowledge to others. Some educators would condemn this list because it places the major emphasis upon knowledge of the subject matter. These educators would indicate that what you teach is not as important as how you teach; in other words, method takes precedence over subject matter. It is probably an error to assume either of these positions because, in a public school designed to serve all the children, subject matter and method must be coexisting equals.

It is very difficult for a supervisor to directly help an individual teacher correct personal faults. Even the most tactful supervisor, unless specifically requested by the teacher, is reluctant to make suggestions pertaining to an overabundance of cosmetics, dilatory shaving habits, dirty fingernails, unclean clothing, etc. It is probably not desirable that the supervisor attempt to interfere directly in matters such as these, because to do so might jeopardize his effectiveness in the direction of more important matters. Nevertheless faulty personal habits detract from the teacher's effectiveness and should be corrected. It is recommended that teachers in a particular building or department be stimulated to come together and develop a self-analysis sheet pertaining to personal appearance that can be used by

we must be realistic enough to recognize that most teachers are subject-matter specialists and that the most prevalent single form of subject-matter organization is by departments. Enough examples of departmental organization existing in the lower administrative levels of our schools can be found to lead us to believe that this type of organization is not uncommon at the intermediate level, and in some cases exists at the primary level.

Once teachers have determined where they are and have decided where they want to go, they become better judges of what to improve and how to improve it. Improvement involves changing the behavior of people, and here a valuing and a possibility system must come into action. It has been stated that change should never be made for a transient reason. Consequently, we must carefully evaluate the things we propose to change, and once we have decided to make a change, we must carefully consider the possibilities of the change being successful. For example, let us assume that the teachers of a selected senior high school organized on the departmental basis have been stimulated to consider the problem of making their students more effective consumers. A problem of this type possesses several important characteristics. First, in its broad interpretation, it cuts across departmental boundary lines. Second, because of the first characteristic, it is impossible to assign any one department the major responsibility for the problem. Third, it would be very impractical to consider the creation of a new department to administer a single problem. Fourth, most teachers agree that more should be done in this area, and so we have a natural situation for instituting group work.

Who should compose the group? The easy method of organizing the group would be for the administrator to assign a member from each department to this group. This practice might result in the production of much fine thinking, but it is recommended that the group be composed of volunteers rather than delegates. When the group is composed, the problem in this particular situation is to design experiences that will cause high-school youth to be more effective consumers of the goods and services offered by their total community. The problem at this point is, like the objectives for education, still in the form of a broad generalization. Accordingly, the first task of the teachers who compose the group is to state the goals of the teacher group and eventually of the students in terms of

objectives for education. This is a profound responsibility and can be resolved only through group action. Many school curriculums are cumbersome because it is difficult to eliminate a subject from a curriculum despite the fact that it might have outlived its usefulness. This difficulty arises from several possible sources. First, many teachers possessing a limited amount of certification have gained tenure, and it is apparently impossible to cause them to broaden their certification; if the subjects they teach are dropped, there would be nothing for them to do. Second, false social prestige is assigned to a student who elects selected types of subjects, and parents encourage the election and retention of these subjects in the curriculum despite the fact that the subjects have little social utility or their children lack the aptitude to master the courses. Third, college-entrance requirements force many schools to assign a false place of importance to the so-called "academic or college preparatory" curriculum despite the fact that a relatively small percentage of the students elect or have the opportunity to enter institutions of higher learning. Fourth, many school faculties are understaffed or too busy to engage in a program of curriculum evaluation. Fifth, many school administrators are willing to maintain outmoded curriculums because it is easier to maintain the status quo than to design a program of educational leadership that would cause the people of a school community to see the need for change. Sixth, current curriculum practices fail to meet the needs or interests of a substantial proportion of secondary-school youth who are not academically inclined; consequently, if the present curriculums remain static, these students drop out of school and do not become a problem for the teacher who is academically but not socially minded. Seventh, to meet adequately the needs of all secondary-school youth, many schools would be forced to make investments in materials and buildings that they are unable to finance. Eighth, the public schools are designed to meet the needs originating from a democratic philosophy of life, and current social and political conditions make the task of interpreting these needs all but impossible.

The implications of the preceding eight points are far reaching and they are presented as a stimulant, not as a condemnation. If the educational process is to become increasingly more effective, teachers must change, but this change must follow the principle that growth begins at a point and is continuous from that point. This being true,

Lead the discussion toward problems that are of immediate importance to the boys and girls in the class?

> For example:
>> Should the senior class purchase class rings?
>> Should there be a required method of dressing for the graduation exercises?

Encourage the students to make a list of unspecialized activities the students can do at home?

> For example:
>> Help paint the garage and house.
>> Make a dress.
>> Repair the electric iron, etc.

Require the students to make a record of the evaluation of the various types of rating scales and agencies.

> For example:
>> Consumers' Research Inc.
>> Consumers' Guide.

Publish the answers of consumer class problems in the school paper or the school column of the town paper?

> For example:
>> Cost of operating a jalopy.
>> Cost of furnishing a home.

Do the students:

Demonstrate the importance of wearing practical clothing to school?

> For example:
>> Saddle shoes instead of high heels.
>> Rubber heels instead of hob nails.

Make sample budgets to correspond to the possible range of allowances or earnings of their own group?

Appreciate the problem of waste as shown by their readiness:

> To eat all the food they buy in the cafeteria.
> To save partially used sheets of paper for scratch work.
> To salvage dance decorations for further use.
> Not to mark on school walls or mar desks.
> Not to scatter toilet paper in the rest rooms.
> Etc.

When the questions have all been assembled, spaces for checking "yes" or "no" should be placed after each question. Armed with this list, the teacher responsible for directing the learning activities connected with some phase of the problem can determine whether or not he is complying with the suggestions of the group. There is

specific aims.[11] These aims are not to be considered as objectives for education but are the specific things that individual teachers will attempt to accomplish in order to contribute to the achievement of one or more of the objectives for education.

Following their initial organization and deliberation, the group will develop and propose to the total faculty a set of aims that might resemble the following: [12]

1. To acquaint the students with the problems of consumer education.
2. To help the students to solve the problems of consumer education.
3. To present to the students the good and bad points of credit, investment, and budgeting.
4. To understand the importance of consumption and waste to the students and community.

The faculty in session should have the privilege of changing or refining the proposed aims. When the aims have been accepted, the answers to four questions must be developed. First, which teachers in the various departments have positive contributions to make toward the achievement of the aims? Second, what should the teachers do in order to achieve the aims? Third, what should the students do in order to achieve the aims? Fourth, what equipment is necessary in order to achieve the aims? During the first venture, it is recommended that the answers to these questions be very specific and be framed as positive questions in order that the individual teachers and the group may develop a form on which to check their compliance with the desires of the group. These questions might be framed in the following manner:

Does the teacher:
Introduce consumer problems that are on the general economic level of the school population being observed?

[11] Ideally, the students and their parents should be represented in this group. Growth is a continuous process, and the basic assumption underlying the presentation of this example is that the teachers of this school have not engaged in interdepartmental group work prior to this time. Consequently, it is recommended that the invitation for students and their parents to participate be postponed until the teachers have the opportunity to realize security in this method.

[12] The material quoted at this point has been selected from C. G. F. Franzen, "An Improvement Sheet for Teaching of Consumer Education to Advanced High School Students," *Improvement Sheets for Instruction,* Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind., 1949.

of seventeen flagrant violations of good administrative practices on the part of the superintendent: [13]

1. Students, parents and teachers quoted him as saying in their presence that he was going to get rid of the older teachers in the system; a statement that, when made by an administrator, is bound to cause difficulties and lower morale in any school system.

2. The procedure of withholding a teacher's contract as a disciplinary measure is frowned upon by experts in the field of school administration and psychologists as well.

3. The failure to be on hand following such unusual action as denying contracts to several long-term teachers certainly indicates a lack of knowledge of administrative strategy.

4. The lack of notice to teachers, prior to their discharge, of specific dissatisfaction with their services and failure to give them opportunity to improve, violates a basic principle of good school administration.

5. The lack of recognition of satisfactory improvement and full compliance with suggestions made by him to Miss ———, is a clear-cut case of carelessness, indifference, negligence or unfairness on the part of the superintendent.

6. Reprimanding a teacher before an entire faculty should be considered as evidence of lack of good judgment and a violation of ethical procedure.

7. Failure to visit classes and observe the work of teachers, particularly those whose work might be unsatisfactory, shows negligence of duty.

8. Failure to seek or consider the advice of supervisors to whom he had delegated supervisory and administrative responsibilities, particularly when problems concerning the welfare and perhaps the professional future of individuals under his administration were under consideration, showed lack of reasonable consideration for persons in subordinate positions.

9. Superintendent ———'s wilful misunderstanding, abuse and intimidation of teachers amounting to dictatorship is illustrated in his boast to a teacher, "I hire and I fire," in the coercive methods he allegedly used in getting teachers to enroll in an extension course and in his refusal to give the discharged teachers any opportunity to comply with his wishes.

nothing static about a list such as this because poor or invalid practices can always be deleted and new practices or activities added. From time to time the list should be evaluated and eventually it will be composed only of items that are valid in the particular school district in which it has been developed. When this situation exists, untrained persons responsible for supervision will have an objective criterion to assist them in the evaluation of the teacher-pupil work in the area for which the questions have been developed.

Lists of questions such as the one described are not rating scales, because a possible composite score compiled by counting the number of questions answered "yes" or "no" would be meaningless. These lists are merely suggestions of good practices cooperatively developed by teachers interested in a common problem. If the suggestions are followed, the teacher and his pupils should more nearly approximate the aims associated with the problem.

RELATIONSHIP OF THE ADMINISTRATOR TO THE OBJECTIVES

The competent administrator recognizes education to be a comprehensive, continuous process. He will be motivated by the realization that democracy must be an actuality and not a theory to be expounded in the philosophy that guides his practices. He will develop satisfactory relationships with his teachers, school patrons, school board, the economic world, and the governmental agencies associated with his school or schools. He will conceive his function to be that of performing the types of services that will enable the teachers to be continually more effective in their direction of the educational process. He will always remember that the purpose of the educational process is to help boys and girls adjust confidently and efficiently to the life that is around and before them.

Unfortunately many administrators do not base their actions upon a philosophy of this type. A philosophy of administration exactly the opposite of that presented above is occasionally revealed. For example, during the spring of 1946 the teachers of McCook, Nebraska, appealed to the Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education of the National Education Association for an investigation of alleged unfair school practices. The situation was investigated and the report that followed the investigation contained the following list

their long experience and greater depth and breadth of professional and cultural background.

17. His lack of professional integrity in his actions as a member of the executive committee of the state teachers' association when his case was under consideration and in his treatment of members of the investigating committee who had been invited to McCook by official action of his employing board, is reprehensible in an official charged with such grave responsibility for the welfare of the youth of a community.

Practices such as these negate the possibility of the administrator or his staff making a positive contribution toward achieving the objectives for education. It would indeed be possible to study this list, redesign it in such a manner that all the negative statements become positive, and have an end product that presents seventeen commendable school-administrative practices.

During the spring of 1945, the same commission that investigated the situation in McCook, Nebraska, investigated a very unprofessional condition in Chicago, Illinois. The report that followed this investigation contained a summary of nine recommendations of which two are very pertinent at this point: [14]

One of the major objectives of the Superintendent of Schools should be to reestablish a leadership of the teaching body by means of knowledge, fairness, integrity, and deep interest in the welfare of the children of the city. He should provide a method whereby teachers' ideas, suggestions, criticisms, and grievances can be given careful consideration. Some type of teacher council should be instituted as a means of securing these objectives.

The business of the Board should be conducted openly and democratically, and careful consideration should be given to honest suggestions and criticism from parents, other citizens, and from lay groups.

These recommendations set forth some of the finest personal and professional qualities that any school administrator could possess. The second recommendation that is quoted clearly emphasizes that the successful administration of the public schools depends upon the group process and is definitely the concern of the entire school community. Administrators who possess the qualities set forth in the first quotation and who cooperate with their community in the manner

[14] *Certain Personnel Practices in the Chicago Public Schools*, pp. 64–65, National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1945.

10. His lack of concern for the welfare of teachers, as illustrated by his discharge of Mr. —— after he had demanded that he refuse an opportunity to return to the Red Cross and had discussed later his assignment for the following year, is certainly not understandable in terms of fair and reasonable treatment.

11. His unwillingness to make decisions on administrative policy when requested by supervisors would lower the efficiency of any school administration.

12. The failure to call more than three general staff meetings during a period of two years, and two of those only to make general announcements, points to one of the reasons for lack of good staff spirit and teamwork, particularly when his discouragement of the formation of a local teachers' association is also noted.

13. There can be little doubt that Mr. —— depended to a large extent on a spy system for reports concerning what was happening in his schools; this appeared in his own allusions to sources of information and to frequent mention on the part of teachers, parents and students to an "espionage system."

14. A charge of serious neglect of duty in looking out for the welfare of students and teachers can be brought on the basis of his failure to visit classes, supervise teachers, inspect school facilities regularly and to correct serious emergency conditions such as a smouldering fire which burned in the coal bin in one of the elementary schools for more than a week, thereby submitting the students and teachers to the danger of poisonous and obnoxious fumes and fire.

15. His dismissal of competent and successful teachers without any professional cause is an indication of weak administration.

16. His lack of professional leadership ability is clear. Miss ——, Miss ——, and Miss —— would be outstanding teachers in any school system in the state, yet Mr. —— could not work with them in McCook. It takes a much stronger and higher type of administration in any organization to handle skilled, efficient, intelligent, independent, experienced employees than it does to handle inexperienced, compliant, inefficient, complacent ones; yet a really outstanding organization must have a predominance of the former type of employees. Where the leadership of youth is concerned, the need for teachers who have intelligence and initiative becomes imperative. It is evident that Superintendent —— does not have the leadership ability to win the cooperative teamwork of a faculty not of his own choosing and to make best use of the superior talents of such teachers as Miss ——, Miss ——, and Miss ——. It appears that at least three of the teachers were dismissed because their ability over-shadowed that of the superintendent, and he was jealous of

cause teachers to be more effective is the promise of higher salaries. Administrators must exert every effort to prevent their teachers from developing attitudes that reflect cynicism, despair, and fear.

The program of administration must be constantly evaluated if it is to be effective. Actually, school administrators are constantly being subjectively evaluated by all school personnel, individual community members, and by community organizations. The fear of this type of evaluation forces many administrators to conceive their function to be that of keeping the various factions that compose the community "happy." This conception of administration negates the possibility of the administrator becoming an educational leader. If the administrator, like his teachers, will engage in a process of self-evaluation, if he will request his teachers and fellow administrators to assist in the evaluation of his school program and then redirect his program in terms of the evaluations, he will have nothing to fear.

An attempt by three school administrators [15] to engage in a program of cooperative evaluation resulted in the construction of the following list of questions:

1. Has a philosophy been developed for the school by the administration in cooperation with the school staff?
2. Is the philosophy published and available to all personnel?
3. Is there constant reviewing, revision, and revitalizing of the philosophy?
4. Does the administrator provide for the participation of the teachers in the planning, organizing, and developing of the curriculum?
5. Does the administration follow a policy of long range planning?
6. Does the administration follow a policy of continuous evaluation and revision?
7. Does the administration provide an adequate school plant to meet the needs and philosophy of the curriculum?
8. Does the curriculum have aims and objectives that fit the needs of the individual child?
9. Does the curriculum have aims and objectives that fit the needs of the community?
10. Does the administrator provide for teacher cooperation in the selection and utilization of materials and equipment?
11. Does the administration promote the utilization of community resources that could be used in teaching situations?

[15] John W. Kopp, John M. Lumley, and Joseph H. Wolfe.

suggested in the second will undoubtedly be administering school districts in which the educational process helps boys and girls approximate the objectives for education.

Administrators must be social engineers. They must be able to gain community support for an ever-improving and changing educational process. They must assist all persons responsible to their administration to realize security in the positions they occupy. They must, with the help of their supervisory assistants, be able to evaluate the effectiveness of the relationship that exists between the teacher, pupils, the educational process, and the objectives for education. They must delight in providing for the needs of boys and girls, and their attitude must be compassionate as they consider the problem areas for which they have accepted the responsibility for administration.

Administrators must be imaginative. They must not become lost in a maze of routine that will cause them to be complacent if only the schools remain open and the "kids" behave. They must be able to sense feelings of inferiority and insecurity in the teacher-pupil and teacher-community relationship and be competent to offer assistance. They must be able to open the horizon to their teachers and be able to offer the type of direction that will enable them to approach it.

The effective administrator of a school or school system whose ultimate purpose is to help youth effectively adjust to the democratic way of life cannot be a demagogue. Teachers elevated to positions of administrative authority must not attempt to substantiate their position through the use of clever oratory and showmanship. The administrator can only substantiate his position by demonstrating his effectiveness in providing educational services for the community of which he is the coordinator of the educational leadership. The administrator must never force his teachers to accept the responsibility for engineering a change in the educational program by developing a series of circumstances to fear if they do not comply with his wishes; to fear and to hate are the methods of dictatorship, not of democracy.

Administrators must gain an understanding of and experience in cooperative activities. They must realize the satisfaction of doing something for the good of all. They must be leaders in disproving the opinion, maintained by some people, that the only thing that will

administrators attempt to develop techniques such as this in order to develop more adequately the proper attitude and environment necessary if the objectives for education are to be realized.

SUMMARY

Objectives for education establish those areas of our total life pattern in which an individual must learn to operate effectively or else fail to meet the challenge of living in our modern world. At the present time the trend in changing the objectives is away from stating them in terms of specific abilities to be acquired toward stating them in terms related to attitudes and competencies which each individual should possess.

Teachers, supervisors, and administrators all have particular services to render if the youth in our public schools are to realize the attainment of the objectives. For the purpose of orderly discussion these services were arbitrarily separated in this chapter. In practice these services cannot be entirely separated because all educational personnel are striving for the common goal of increasing the effectiveness of the educational process.

It is impossible to disassociate the objectives for education from any discussion that pertains to education for American youth. The administrative services, the supervisory stimulation and direction, and teacher group action have all been associated in their broad aspect with the objectives. A forward look by the reader will reveal that the details of teacher-supervisor relations, etc., will be developed in succeeding chapters.

12. Does the administration provide a curriculum that is sufficiently diversified to be properly accredited and meeting the needs of all groups?

13. Does the administration promote community understanding of the curriculum through lay participation? (To what extent is it a program of mutual interaction?)

14. Does the administration bring the school into association with the community through functional interpretation of school activity?

15. Does the administration provide for a program of adult education?

16. Have the socio-economic problems of the homes been helped by the establishment of the adult educational program?

17. Does the administration foster and develop proper articulation between:
    a. Various grade levels.
    b. Departments of the school.
    c. Community groups.

18. Does the administration provide for the enlightenment of teachers in regard to administrative policy?

19. Does the administration provide for staff participation in the preparation of the budget?

20. Does the administration provide for the fulfillment of all legal requirements applying to the schools?

21. Does the administration provide supervision of a constructive and helpful nature?

22. Does the administration employ the services of "outside experts" in effecting curriculum change?

23. Does the administration provide adequate facilities for in-service training of the school personnel? (Time, leadership, finance, materials, and equipment.)

24. Have the administration and the community done a satisfactory job in selecting well qualified school personnel? .

25. Does the membership of the school board represent the various geographical areas of the district, and does it represent a diversity of occupations?

The constructors of this list of questions intended to redirect as many of their policies as possible in order to be able to answer all the questions affirmatively. Obviously the list is incomplete in that it does not cover all the aspects of the administrators' duties. It represents an excellent beginning and is presented here as one example of a relatively simple, cooperative, evaluative technique that can be developed and constantly refined. It is recommended that more

It has not been an uncommon practice for these rating scales to be checked and submitted to the chief administrative official following a single observation during the course of a single school year. This type of practice has caused many teachers to fear the presence of a supervisor in their building or classroom. It is a truism to state that this type of practice does not measure teaching proficiency and is obviously unfair. The concept of evaluation that is advocated in this text will not completely delete the possibility of using rating scales as a part of the evaluative procedure, but the attempt will be made to place them in their proper perspective to the total evaluative procedure. It is important to remember that a modern concept of supervision visualizes evaluation to be valuable only when all aspects of the educational process, personnel and material, are evaluated.

DEPARTMENTAL OR AREA PLANNING

Supervisors are usually associated with subject-matter areas or divisions of subject-matter areas. It is a common practice to group related subjects together into departments. Thus we commonly find the curriculums of junior and senior high schools divided into the departments of social studies, English, science, etc. At the primary and intermediate levels we less frequently find departments, but we do find the curriculum broken into areas; for example, language arts including listening, speaking, reading, writing, handwriting, and spelling; social living including geography, history, civics, elementary science, and social learnings.[2] Presumably the heads or chairmen of the various departments in the junior and senior high schools are expected to share with the principal the major responsibility for supervision. At the primary and intermediate levels the task of supervision is frequently performed by the principal and specialists in subdivisions of the larger areas, for example reading and handwriting.

Better teaching is always the result of careful planning and preparation. It is impossible to overestimate the importance of planning for teaching, or as Schorling has stated, "There is probably no type of work where the results of poor planning are so devastating as in

Monday

8:30–10:00—Opening exercises including
  1. A brief nonsectarian devotional service.
  2. The principal's welcome to all teachers. He introduces new teachers and points out significant problems that the staff should consider during the course of the school year.
  3. A selected supervisor's outline of the broad plan of action. This plan, which has been cooperatively developed by the supervisors and administrators during the summer months, will be followed by the various departments or areas during the work week.

10:00–10:15—Morning break.

10:15–12:00—Organization of, and orientation in, the various groups. As a teacher of teachers, the supervisor must develop teacher readiness for supervision. The supervisor must cause the teachers to feel he is sincerely interested in their ideas, ideals, accomplishments, and problems. The supervisor must cause all teachers to feel that he has confidence in them, that he respects and learns from them. The supervisor interprets the community's needs, problems, and possible criticisms for the teachers. The supervisor directs the educational thinking and actions of the individual teachers and of the teachers as a group into channels that will make the educational process more effective.

It is not being suggested that the supervisor will accomplish these things on some Monday morning between 10:15 and 12 o'clock. It is being suggested that supervisors must develop this type of relationship with their teachers if as supervisors they are to offer helpful direction to, and provide constructive evaluation for, their teachers.

12:00– 1:00—Lunch period.

1:00– 2:30—Discussion period by groups including
  1. Reconsideration of the philosophy of the school.
  2. Reinterpretation of the objectives for education in terms of the school's philosophy.
  3. Consideration of the school problems suggested by the principal during the opening session.

2:30– 3:30—Planning period. Within the limits of the broad plan of action that was established in the opening session, each group will plan its activities for the week. Activities and

teaching." [3] Occasionally one will encounter in a classroom a very colorful personality who seems to delight in creating the impression that he obtains very good results without planning. It is especially unfortunate when young teachers encounter such a personality because the impression is misleading. All teachers plan their activities, but there is a great amount of variance in the nature of the planning. It is significant that most teachers who are considered superior spend a great amount of time and energy in planning their work regardless of the type of method or methods they employ in their classrooms. The teacher who employs extensive pupil-teacher planning with his classes must engage in as much if not more preclass planning than the teacher who individually prepares extensive lists of aims, materials, and questions for each class. It is never a question of to plan or not to plan; it is always the question of what will be the nature of my planning. Like it or not, we will either teach according to a series of quickly-developed haphazard plans or teach effectively according to a well-developed series of fully organized plans.

Preschool Planning. Each year more and more administrators are recognizing the desirability of bringing their teachers back to school one week or more before the students return. The method of using this week profitably varies from school to school. For example, some administrators plan a series of visits to industrial and civic enterprises, some suggest a series of home visitations, some plan a broad program of socializing activities for the teachers, and some organize workshop types of programs in which the teachers with their supervisors have the opportunity to plan their course of action for the coming school year. All these practices have much merit, but in the opinion of the author the last one is most fruitful from the standpoint of increasing the effectiveness of the total educational process. Industrial and civic visitations, home visits, and socializing experiences are most valuable when they are spaced through the school year. Planning is never finished; it doesn't stop for the supervisors and teachers in June and automatically begin in September. Planning is continuous, and if the school year is to be an effective one educationally, there are some specific tasks that must begin in the preschool "work week." The following day-to-day program is offered as a suggested method of spending this work week profitably.

[3] R. Schorling, *Student Teaching*, p. 135, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

28. A broader concept of discipline.
29. A planned, purposeful program of departmental meetings.
30. Specific services that the supervisor must render.

3:30– 4:30—Planning and evaluation meeting for administrators and supervisors.

TUESDAY

8:30– 8:45—Opening exercise including
1. A brief nonsectarian devotional service.
2. A challenge, from the chairman of the local educational association, to each teacher to rededicate himself to the teaching profession.

9:00–10:00—Group work with supervisors. Selection of committees and individuals to implement the mechanical aspects of opening school. Selection of a committee to recommend discussion problems for the work week.

10:00–10:15—Morning break.

10:15–12:00—Individual and committee work. During this period the supervisor should check to be sure each individual and committee has the physical accommodations, help, and resources necessary to effective work.

12:00– 1:00—Lunch period.

1:00– 2:30—Individual and committee work.

2:30– 3:30—Evaluation of group progress by committee chairmen, individuals, and supervisor.

3:30– 4:30—Planning and evaluation meeting for administrators and supervisors.

WEDNESDAY

8:30– 8:45—Opening exercise including
1. A brief nonsectarian devotional service.
2. Presentation, by a beginning teacher, of a selected problem of a beginning teacher.

9:00–10:00—Committee and individual work.

10:00–10:15—Morning break.

10:15–12:00—Same as Tuesday.

12:00– 1:00—Lunch period.

1:00– 2:30—Same as Tuesday.

2:30– 3:30—Coffee hour in the school cafeteria.

3:30– 4:30—Same as Tuesday.

problems of the following type should be considered by the group or by committees within the group:

1. Issuing supplies and materials to the teachers.
2. The teaching of remedial classes.
3. The formation of clubs that should be associated with the department or area.
4. Suggestions and procedure for implementing interdepartmental cooperation and work.
5. Recommendations for outside consultants to assist with the in-service training program.
6. Recommendations for types of in-service training programs.
7. The attendance of departmental members at local, state, and national conferences.
8. Contributions that can be made to local, state, and national educational associations.
9. Procedure to be followed in making field trips.
10. Methods of implementing intraschool and interschool faculty visitations.
11. Methods of cooperating in the student-teaching program.
12. Purchases that should be made for the school and professional library.
13. Methods for studying, demonstrating, and evaluating new techniques that have been learned in summer school.
14. Methods of departmental evaluation.
15. Methods of reporting pupil progress.
16. Methods of securing home-school cooperation.
17. Services that can be rendered to the community.
18. Sponsorship of assembly programs.
19. Promotion of social events for the faculty; students and faculty; students, parents, and faculty.
20. Issuing supplies and materials to the students.
21. Collection of fees and rentals for books and materials.
22. Methods of using the services of specialists employed by the school district.
23. Methods of enriching the program.
24. Making better use of the office records, the student's cumulative record.
25. Recording grades.
26. Methods of implementing the core curriculum, the integrated curriculum, etc.
27. The promotion of self-analysis.

The major emphasis in the preceding program is placed upon group work, evaluation, and the presentation of individual ideas. In planning a work week it is very easy to become lost in a maze of mechanical manipulation of people. The tremendous possibilities for educational growth will be lost if this condition prevails; to prevent the prevalence of this condition demands that evaluation assume a continuing position of paramount importance. The supervisor's basic task in the development of an evaluation program is to build the right attitude toward evaluation; his chief tool will always be respect for the individual personalities within his group. In a final analysis it is well to remember that the character of a supervisory program will be determined, not by its treatment of inanimate school property, but by its treatment of living people. A supervisory program might help teachers advance educationally and still leave them slaves to their emotions. It could easily liberate the educational process from the tentacles of the past and yet lose its social sensitivity.

DEVELOPING THE LONG-RANGE PLAN

A generation ago most teachers found their subjects planned for the year; they were simply given a textbook for each subject and expected to follow it. Teachers who are inadequately prepared continue to use the single textbook as a crutch but this conception of the textbook is slowly disappearing. The modern teacher considers the textbook to be a tool, in the sense that it is a resource material and a guide, rather than a control or limiting factor upon the plan for learning experiences. The tremendous growth in school population has added pupils with all degrees of ability and a single textbook is rarely adequate to meet the needs of this heterogeneous group. It is also necessary to remember that the complexion of the pupil group at each educational level changes each year. For these reasons, even the most experienced teachers need to re-evaluate and plan their work anew each year.

Changes or modifications in our conception of the objectives for education have attached a new importance to planning. The teacher of a generation ago placed the emphasis upon the memorization of factual knowledge and the acquisition of specific skills; this was considered to be the end of instruction. The teacher of today believes that knowledge and skills are means to the end of pupils' developing

THURSDAY

8:30– 8:45—Opening exercise including
           1. A brief nonsectarian devotional service.
           2. Presentation, by an experienced teacher, of a problem of an experienced teacher.
9:00–10:00—Evaluation and summary of individual and committee work to date.
10:00–10:15—Morning break.
10:15–12:00—Continuation of evaluation and summary of committee and individual work as needed.
12:00– 1:00—Lunch period.
1:00– 2:30—Preparation of individual and committee reports and recommendations.
2:30– 3:30—Evaluation of group progress by committee chairmen, individuals, and supervisors.
3:30– 4:30—Same as Tuesday.

FRIDAY

8:30–10:00—Opening exercise including
           1. A brief nonsectarian devotional service.
           2. A student panel discussion of some selected topic, for example, What Public Education Means to Me.
10:00–10:15—Morning break.
10:15–12:00—Presentation of individual and committee reports to their respective groups.
12:00– 1:00—Lunch period.
1:00– 2:00—Group evaluation of the individual and committee reports.
2:00– 2:30—Faculty meeting. The principal discusses, The Challenge of Teaching. The following lines selected from Abraham Lincoln's *Gettysburg Address* might provide through analogy the proper stimulation at this point:

> "It is for us the living to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who have fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us."

2:30– 3:30—Coffee hour in the school cafeteria.
3:30– 4:30—Meeting of administrators and supervisors for the purpose of evaluating the work week and projecting the supervisory program into the school year.

7. All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.

8. All youth need to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.

9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others.

10. All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.

Despite the fact that this list was developed by secondary-school principals, it is obvious that the various competencies, attitudes, capacities, and skills cannot be developed at the secondary level alone. Respect for other persons is an attitude that can only be developed if all levels of the public school closely integrate their work with that of the home. Education is a continuous process that can be positive or negative. Education is not a process that begins when a youngster enters a school door and ends when he leaves it. The school is merely the social agency that the public has cooperatively created to provide and interpret those experiences that all youth need in order to adjust adequately to life. It is the supervisor's task to interpret the nature of the community for the teacher. He must understand the community's needs and problems and acquaint the community with the role the school can play in meeting their needs and solving their problems.

Thus we have a series of forces that condition the nature of the plan for the year's work. The various departments or areas will make varying contributions to the various imperative needs. Progress toward meeting the imperative needs will always be conditioned by the nature of the community. Experiences designed to help youth meet their imperative needs must always be conceived in relation to the ability of the students of the particular school district. Consequently before planning the year's program, the supervisor must first acquaint his teachers with the nature of the community, and together they must study the students who will be involved in the educational program. When the program has been planned, the supervisor should take the necessary steps to acquaint the public with the nature of and the reasons for the particular type of program that has evolved.

the desirable attitudes and competencies that will help them adjust more adequately to life in a modern world. Obviously the educational experiences that compose the curriculum have social utility only when they provide students with the necessary stimulation to cause them to develop the needed attitudes and competencies.

· The critical point in planning the year's work is to determine how the objectives for education can be made to function in the actual teaching situation of a specific subject or area. The first task of the supervisor is to consider with his teachers the competencies and attitudes that all youth need to develop and then to determine the types of contributions the specific department or area can make. By considering the competencies that all youth need it is hoped that teachers can be directed toward the realization that interdepartmental or area work and study are absolutely mandatory if the schools are to perform effectively their assigned functions for our society. In 1944, selected committees of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals prepared the following list of ten Imperative Needs of Youth: [4]

1. All youth need to develop saleable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.

2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.

3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation.

4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.

5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.

6. All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and man.

[4] *Planning for American Youth*, p. 43, National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Washington, D.C., 1944.

central theme or organizing idea. Second, the planning must incorporate many activities that require the pupils to find, organize, and employ facts that contribute to the clarification of the central theme. Third, class time is not segmented but is apportioned in such a way that all pupils have an ample opportunity to complete the work assigned to them under the preceding point.

Advocates of the unit plan claim that it possesses many advantages over the more traditional methods of teaching. The following list of advantages is representative rather than inclusive:

1. The teacher is able to change the schoolroom from a recitation room into a learning laboratory.

2. The teacher is able to develop a balance between individual and group work.

3. The teacher is required to engage in interdepartmental or area work if the units are to be developed adequately.

4. The teacher is more able to provide for individual differences.

5. The teacher is able to provide for supervised study.

6. The teacher is able to demonstrate the techniques necessary for, and the power that is inherent in, group action.

Teachers who are employing unit plans usually need a great amount of supervisory assistance with the following types of problems:

1. The classroom furniture may be immovable thus creating an obstacle to effective group work. It is a function of the supervisor to study the *situation and to recommend appropriate changes to the principal.*

2. Many teachers lose their personal security in the classroom when they first begin to employ the group process. It is the function of the supervisor to help the teacher maintain his security at all times.

3. Many teachers do not know how to evaluate individual pupils when the group-action part of the unit plan is being employed. It is a function of the supervisor to develop with his teachers a *satisfactory plan for* evaluation.

4. Independent study involving reading is an inherent part of the unit plan of instruction. Many teachers and supervisors are not prepared to offer remedial reading assistance. It is a function of the supervisor to provide or obtain remedial reading assistance for the students who have reading difficulties.

5. To develop most units adequately, the teacher is required to engage in interdepartmental work. It is a function of the supervisor to help his teachers maintain workable relationships with all departments or areas.

It is impossible to state just how much of the yearly plan should appear in writing. If the teachers have had wide experiences, it might be well to confine the writing to a simple outline. On the other hand if the teachers are relatively inexperienced, it may be desirable to develop a very complete outline. In any case the supervisor and his teachers should consider the following four points in the construction of the plan:

1. Specific contributions the subject or area can make toward the realization by the students of the objectives for education. This realization can come only as the students have experiences that help them meet their imperative needs.

2. Specific indications that the teachers understand how to adapt the objectives, interpreted as imperative needs, to their classroom situations.

3. Specific indications of the levels at which the various teachers will begin their work and tentative terminal points.

4. Suggestions for evaluative techniques that will indicate to the teacher and supervisor whether or not the subject or area is actually helping students meet their imperative needs.

Unit Planning. When teachers religiously followed the dictates of a textbook, each day's lesson was treated as an isolated segment of learning. During this period it was considered to be a good practice for teachers to make rigid daily lesson plans that would account for the interval of the class period. The modern teacher has modified the rigidity of the formal daily lesson plan and has ceased treating any day's lesson as an isolated segment of learning. These changes in practice have been prompted by the realization that human growth is a continuous process. Consequently, the effective teacher is one who plans learning experiences that are continuous and integrated with other learning experiences. The unit plan of work is one of several popular methods of organizing learning experiences in such a way as to provide for continuous pupil growth.

It is difficult to define a unit because it takes a variety of forms in various schools. For example, an art teacher may plan a unit around the theme, Expressing Experiences of Your Summer Vacation; an English teacher may develop a unit for Observing Life with a Sense of Humor. Despite the difficulty encountered in selecting a universally accepted definition for units, they all seem to have some common characteristics. First, all units are built around a

be the moral that underlies the construction of the daily plan. In harmony with this thought, it is recommended that the daily plan be composed of the following subdivisions:

1. Specific aims for the day's lesson. Listed numerically, these are the things that the students should accomplish each day in order to approximate more nearly their realization of the objectives for education.

2. Activities of the teacher. These are the activities the teacher will perform in order to (a) establish continuity and facilitate integration between this lesson and previous and future lessons; (b) help the students achieve the aims for the lesson.

3. Activities of the students. These are the activities the students will perform in order to (a) develop an appreciation of the continuous and integrated character of all their learning experiences; (b) achieve the aims for the lesson.

4. Materials and information needed in order to implement the realization by the students of the aims for this lesson and ultimately the objectives for education.

The items listed above are the basic essentials for any adequate daily plan. Some authorities would broaden this list to include time budget, daily assignment, and evaluation period. It is undoubtedly wise to consider the amount of time to be devoted to each activity. On the other hand, it is well to remember that educational growth is continuous, and it would be a poor lesson that was conducted on a stop-watch basis. The daily assignment is normally a teacher activity; it must be well planned, but it must be subject to change depending upon the actual progress made during the lesson. The evaluation period is also very important, but under the scheme suggested above, it would be considered as a part of the activities of the teacher and of the students.

Teachers who employ the unit plan of organization frequently list pupil aims or purposes separate from the teacher's aims or purposes. This procedure undoubtedly represents an attempt to ensure that the needs of the pupils will be satisfied. Much merit is to be found in this idea, but two glaring weaknesses are also present. First, the teacher aims should be developed to guide the selection of learning experiences that will strengthen individual pupil inadequacies discovered through the evaluation program and classified as needs. When this condition prevails, the aims of the teacher and pupils will certainly be in harmony thus rendering unnecessary the construction

As a group, teachers are dedicated to the fact that democratic concepts are the lifeblood of our society. The school program must employ these concepts in its operation if boys and girls are to have the direct types of democratic experience they need in order to adjust happily and efficiently to our way of living. Unit planning is one method of subject-matter organization that offers boys and girls the opportunity directly to experience democracy in action. Unit planning also stimulates the integration of experiences from various subject-matter fields. However, desirable as the integration of subject matter might be, it would be a poor practice to force integration where the experiences involved could not sensibly be brought together.

There are many democratic methods of teaching. It is indeed possible to say that any method, lecture, recitation, project, etc., can be democratically conceived. The objections raised about various methods, or about our entire school organization, are not inherent in the methods or organization but in the attitudes of the people who direct them. It is the function of the director of the learning process to adapt his methods to the needs of the boys and girls in his class. If the boys and girls need unit planning experiences, they should be provided; on the other hand, if a lecture is needed, it should be provided. It is an important function of the supervisor to help his teachers individually and collectively to select and adapt for use the method or methods that most nearly meet the needs of boys and girls.

The Daily Lesson Plan. Many lessons have been failures because the teacher did not take adequate time to think through his lesson. Supervisors will often find that teachers who object to their presence or classes that seem to be making little progress are associated with the negligence of daily planning. The highly professional teacher will find the task of constructing lesson plans very easy, for the continuity established by the over-all plan will provide enough momentum to determine the origin and probable terminal point of each day's activities. The highly professional teacher will not consider lesson planning to be annoying or burdensome.

It is a function of the supervisor to stimulate his teachers to plan daily. It is also his function to see that the planning does not become an end in itself but always remains as a means to the end of producing a more effective learning situation. "Simple but adequate" should

PLANNING INSTITUTE PROGRAMS

During the first semester of the school year, many county or larger district school units set aside a day or two for a type of in-service training program known as the County Institute.[6] Many educators doubt the importance of the institute as a method for stimulating the in-service growth of teachers. A series of unfortunate circumstances usually originating from poor planning and leadership has promoted the development of this attitude. For example, it is not uncommon to find situations in which institute programs have become so degraded that it is necessary for administrators to enforce rigid attendance regulations in order to guarantee the presence of their teachers at the meetings. These situations are very unfortunate, but they can usually be corrected by improving the quality of the leadership and incorporating the teachers into the planning of the programs.

In many places the County Institute has probably outlived the reasons that brought it into existence. Nevertheless, as long as these institutes are required, they can be re-created into positive forces for the promotion of teacher growth. In order to revitalize the institute, it is first necessary for supervisors to know the needs and interests of their teachers and then incorporate their teachers into the planning of the institute programs. If the supervisor is well aware of the interests and needs of his teachers, it should be a comparatively easy task to direct the thinking in their institute planning meetings so that a program is developed which will be attractive and meaningful for them. It is very important to have printed institute programs in the hands of each teacher at least one week before the institute convenes. The following outline represents a type of one-day institute program that appeals to many teachers:

PROGRAM

8:30– 9:00—Coffee social hour.
9:00– 9:30—Opening exercise including
      1. Devotional period.
      2. Citizenship period.
9:30–10:00—Sound motion picture depicting, "The Functions of Public Education in the United States."

[6] The County Institute is introduced at this point because it is an example of a personal relationship between the administrator, supervisor, and teachers.

of a separate list of pupil aims. Second, if aims or purposes are developed collectively by the pupils, these aims must be stated as generalities rather than specifics. This procedure appears to be contrary to the fact that pupils differ as individuals, and as individuals, in terms of specifics, each student might have individual aims.

Schorling[5] lists seventeen common errors that teachers make in daily lesson planning. The list is included at this point as an aid to the supervisor who desires to help his teachers evaluate their daily plans:

In preparing the work on specific lessons, teachers have failed to

1. Provide the best illustrative materials available.
2. Include crucial questions.
3. Select the most appropriate aims.
4. Consider the level of ability and interests of the students.
5. Consult courses of study and grade requirements.
6. Select the best procedures.
7. Consider the materials in pupils' textbooks.
8. Tie the lesson in with the previous ones.
9. Take into consideration knowledge already possessed by pupils.
10. Include an appropriate assignment.
11. Consider supplementary materials in the library in making the assignment.
12. Emphasize the main points of interest.
13. Arrange a logical order of activities that would lead toward a realization of the aim of the lesson.
14. Provide for adequate summaries.
15. Make the plan flexible enough to allow the teacher to leave it temporarily and follow pupil interests.
16. Budget the time devoted to phases of the lesson.
17. Provide a means for evaluating the results of the lesson and the teaching.

A lesson plan that includes too much will probably force the lesson to be stilted or the teacher to become lost in a pit of meaningless nonentities. If the lesson plan is not broad enough, the teacher may omit information, methods of motivation, etc., that should have been included. Beginning teachers should consult their supervisors regularly until they have found the balance between too much and too little in the construction of lesson plans.

[5] *Op. cit.,* p. 150.

developed lists of items contrasting the old and new in education. Teachers can learn from other teachers, and the supervisor should exploit every occasion to give them the opportunity to do so. The display of teacher- or school-developed materials should be conceived in a spirit of professional helpfulness, not with the idea of stimulating competition between teachers or between schools.

THE SUPERVISOR PLANS TO VISIT A CLASSROOM

Many teachers have been exposed to a type of so-called "supervisor" who considered his only function to be that of rating teachers. Supervisors who conceive rating to be their primary function have caused teachers to fear the presence of the supervisor in the building or their classrooms. Teachers need and welcome the right type of supervision, but many teachers have developed such a fear of supervision that it takes a very skillful supervisor to change their attitudes so that they will invite him to, and make him feel welcome in, their classrooms. The supervisor should remember that if the teacher invites you to his room you will have time to prepare yourself to be helpful before you go.

Supervisors are frequently required to visit all teachers in their classrooms at least once each year. Obviously a single visit each year can amount to little more than an inspection tour of each classroom. The fact remains, however, that if the teachers fear supervision they will not invite the supervisor to their classrooms. The supervisor who desires to be a creative director of teacher growth will recognize the fact that many teachers fear his visits, and he will do everything possible to so conduct himself during his visits that the fear is lessened or dispelled altogether. The following list of suggestions for classroom visitation may prove helpful to many supervisors:

CLASSROOM VISITATION

1. Entering the school. When the supervisor arrives at the school, he should make his presence known to the principal. He should give the principal a copy of his planned schedule for visiting teachers.

2. Entering the classroom. The supervisor should enter the classroom as unobtrusively as possible. If the teacher sees him enter the classroom, the two should greet each other. If the teacher does not see the supervisor enter the room, the supervisor should make his presence known at the first convenient moment.

10:00–10:15—Morning break.
10:30–11:45—Demonstrations, e.g.,
        1. Methods of using current events at various reading levels.
        2. Methods of introducing science instruction at the inter-
           mediate level.
11:45– 1:00—Lunch.
 1:00– 2:00—Panel discussion, methods of promoting better teacher-
           parent relationships.
 2:00– 2:15—Afternoon break.
 2:15– 3:15—Panel discussion, methods of using the services of the special
           teachers (art, music, etc.) to greater advantage.
 3:15– 3:45—Summary of the day's activities.
 4:00– 5:00—Administrators' and supervisors' evaluation of the institute
           program. Plans are made to have representative teachers
           evaluate the program.

The supervisor can publicly recognize the work of outstanding teachers by including them on the institute program. If it is possible, the wise supervisor will have one or more of the panel discussions broadcast to the county area. Supervisors should exert every effort to interest as many new teachers as possible in committee service for the institute program. New teachers often feel that they are not an integral part of institute programs because they usually know very little about the county and very few people. Any institute program has many service tasks that can be performed by new teachers. For example, a new teacher can be of great service as a member of the foods committee, decorations committee, arrangements commit-tee, etc. During the coffee social hour, morning and afternoon breaks, and the lunch period, the supervisors should sponsor or secure a sponsor for each new teacher in order to help him develop a feeling of belonging to the county group.

School book and material companies are usually willing to display their wares at county meetings. The teachers should be encouraged to study the new books and materials in order to be able to participate more intelligently on book and material adoption committees during the course of the school year. In addition to these displays the super-visors should arrange displays of materials produced by teachers or by school groups. For example, an individual teacher may have developed an interesting unit, An Experience Unit in Creative Writing; a school group working on a school philosophy may have

the information is to help them increase the effectiveness with which they direct the learning experiences for children. If the teachers seem reluctant to have their needs analyzed, the supervisor should explain that he is trying to work with them the way he hopes they will work with their pupils. For example,[1]

. . . the Warren County [New Jersey] *helping teachers try to work with teachers the way they hope the teachers will work with children.* . . .

One of our [Warren County helping teachers] *earliest attempts to focus the teachers' attention on children rather than subject matter was through encouraging teachers to set up their own objectives;* we still use this technic.

We started by talking informally with teachers. Why is J absent today? Did you ever meet Mrs. J, his mother? Have you noticed the kind of lunch he brings? What kind of a boy is he? I wonder why he has such a hard time to get along? What are your plans for J? What are your special hopes for this year? How do you hope all of the children will change? What do you want to do for your children this year? What do you think some of the big needs are? *In such a conversation the helping teacher hoped to do two things—one, to get the teacher thinking about the boy as an individual, the other to encourage her to think about all the children in the group and then to write down her objectives for the year.* She hoped to get the teacher to take these objectives beyond the realm of finishing such-and-such amount of subject matter, which she already was doing very well.

It may be a difficult but certainly not an impossible matter to have teachers analyze for themselves the supervisor-teacher relationship, using their conception of the teacher-pupil relationship as a basis for their analysis. For example, in the preceding quotation the helping teacher (supervisor) *was trying to cause the teacher to think about the boy as an individual;* the teacher cannot direct and adequately help the boy, or the supervisor cannot direct and adequately help the teacher, unless the teacher understands the boy and the supervisor understands the teacher as individuals. Supervisors must also remember that each teacher is a member of a group of teachers. If the teachers are to grow in service, the supervisor must establish growth aims for each individual and for the group.

[1] M. Everett, *The Rural Supervisor at Work*, pp. 76–77, The Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, Yearbook, Washington, D.C., 1949.

3. Behavior in the classroom. The supervisor should be natural and friendly. He should take a seat with the group and should accept the materials that are offered to him. If the pupils are engaged in individual work at their seats or laboratory tables, the supervisor should feel free to circulate among the pupils. Under no circumstance should the supervisor give the impression that he is writing a report during his visit.

4. Length of the visit. The first visit should be short but the supervisor should plan to see a complete section of work. Following his first visit, the supervisor may plan to stay for a longer period of time depending upon the type of help or direction requested by the teacher.

5. Leaving the classroom. Do not leave the classroom without praising something that has occurred during the visit.

6. The conference following the visit. If the supervisor spends the entire day in one building, he may have individual conferences during the day or a group conference after school. The supervisor should always plan his time so that he has an individual conference with each teacher or a group conference including all teachers during the day on which he visits them.

7. Leaving the building. When the supervisor is ready to leave the building, he should bid farewell to the principal. If the principal requests information from the supervisor about the teachers, it should be given to him in a professional manner.

The preceding list of suggestions are in no sense a prescription for alleviating all the negative emotional reaction that teachers sometimes develop during a supervisor's visit. These suggestions have been helpful to some supervisors and they may be helpful to others; in any case, they must be adapted to fit each local situation.

PLANNING TO KNOW TEACHERS

Before the teacher can be effective in the direction of the learning process he must know the pupils. This statement applies with equal force to the supervisor-teacher relationship. There are many avenues through which the supervisor may discover important items of information concerning the needs of teachers. The supervisor should conduct himself in a very professional manner when assembling information that will help him evaluate the needs of his teachers. The teachers should be cognizant of the fact that the supervisor is trying to identify their needs; they should have the opportunity to discuss any phase of this identification process with him; and they should thoroughly understand that the sole reason for assembling

a field trip along a busy street and some of the pupils are pushing others into the street, the supervisor should take steps to correct the situation. This situation can probably be corrected by *telling* the pupils to remain on the sidewalk. This method of correcting an unwholesome situation will solve the immediate problem but it does not provide a rounded learning experience.

Obviously the safety of the pupils should be the first concern of the supervisor. But when the safety of the pupils has been assured, the supervisor can team with the teacher to address some questions to the group which will make them more intelligently self-directive. One question might be: If one pupil pushes another into the street in the path of an approaching automobile, which student must assume the social responsibility for the act? Another approach to this problem is to bring the pupils together and direct them as they formulate their own rules for controlling conduct on field trips. Both approaches are thoroughly democratic and serve to impress upon the pupils the fact that if the democratic process is to be meaningful to each individual, he must earn his right to participate in it.

TEACHERS WITH DEFENSIVE ATTITUDES

Now and then the supervisor will encounter a teacher who has developed a very negative attitude toward supervision. When this attitude is encountered, it is usually displayed by a teacher who feels inadequate in his teaching situation or who has had unfortunate contacts with previous supervisors. Obviously the supervisor is going to be unable to help this teacher until he has modified his attitude.

One approach to this situation is for the supervisor to offer indirect help to the teacher in the form of various types of teaching aids. This procedure will usually place the teacher and supervisor on a friendly conversational basis. The task of the supervisor at this point is to maintain a very pleasant attitude toward the teacher but also to maintain his determination to understand the nature of the teacher's problem. When the supervisor has developed an understanding of the teacher's problem, he is in an objective position to help the teacher.

SUMMARY

Effective teaching is planned teaching. Planning must be continuous if the educational process is to be meaningful for all pupils. When the second semester of the school year is finished, the super-

LET THE TEACHERS TEACH

Quite commonly one encounters supervisors who conceive their function to be that of teaching demonstration lessons. For example, an art supervisor has decided that the teachers in a particular building for which he is responsible are not using audio-visual materials to the best advantage in the teaching of art. The supervisor has a limited amount of time so he arranges with the principal of the building to assemble all the pupils in the first four grades and their teachers in the auditorium for a demonstration lesson. From this point on, the procedure is simple and atrocious—the teachers serve the function of policemen, and the supervisor engages in a demonstration that is meaningless to the teachers and pupils. In this pattern of activity, the pupils are usually required to sit for abnormally long periods of time because once the principal and supervisor have gone to the trouble of assembling the pupils and getting them quiet, there is no point in dismissing them in a reasonable amount of time just because it is physically, mentally, and emotionally wise to do so. It should be unnecessary to say that this procedure is in no way related to the modern conception of supervision.

The modern conception of supervision maintains that the supervisor should give direction and help to the teachers, but that the teachers should teach the pupils. To all rules there are probably exceptions, but as a general policy, supervisors should adhere to this principle. In the preceding example the supervisor would have been much more efficient had he worked with the teachers as a group and let them use the results of their group work to improve the effectiveness with which they use audio-visual materials. When the supervisor insists on staging an egotistical performance before a policed audience, the teachers will not respond to the instruction by asking questions or making suggestions for they will be fearful of losing status with their pupils and fellow teachers. However, if the supervisor and his teachers work together as a professional group in order that all might improve individually and as a group, there is no reason why artificial barriers to learning should exist between the group members.

Emergency Situations. Now and then the supervisor will encounter an emergency situation in which he must give immediate help to the teacher. For example, if a biology teacher is observed conducting

Chapter 4. THE NATURE OF EVALUATION

Much of the fear that teachers associate with the supervisor's visit evolves from the past when the supervisor's chief function was to rate teachers. The teacher's life was inextricably associated with the rating process: his desires for professional advancement, personal security, tenure, salary increases, and a number of other things were dependent upon the rating he received. The rating process was grossly unfair because the rating was often based upon one visit a year that might endure for a complete day or only for a few minutes. In addition, the person responsible for rating was seldom trained to perform this very important task. The ineptitude of the early supervisors is indicated by Martz and Smith in their discussion of the development of professional supervision: [1]

The position [superintendent] was that of an inspector, whose duty was, not to develop an educational program, but to see that the principals and teachers "kept school" in conformity with the regulations laid down by the local authorities. Professional training was not regarded as necessary and the early superintendent was more often a business man than a teacher. He devoted to the job only such time as he felt he could spare from his private affairs. Frequently he served without pay as school board members of the present time commonly do. When some salary was paid, it was likely to be less than that of the principals in the same system. Under these circumstances, superintendents changed at frequent intervals, often resigning because they could not spare the necessary time from their business interests.

The inspection concept of supervision was a natural corollary to the early public interest in having teachers certificated. Brubacher [2] introduces the certification problem this way:

[1] V. Martz and H. L. Smith, *An Introduction to Education*, p. 117, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1941.
[2] J. S. Brubacher, *A History of the Problems of Education*, p. 520, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1947.

visors begin to use the results of the evaluations of the year's work in order to project their plans for the reopening of school after the summer vacation period. These plans will overlap the plans the supervisors have previously helped the community members develop in order to get maximum use from the school buildings and grounds during the vacation period.

At least one week before the opening of the first semester of the new school year, all teachers should report to their respective buildings for a work week. The purpose of this week is to give the supervisor and his teachers an opportunity to incorporate the results of evaluations, summer-school experiences, etc., into broad plans of action for the coming year.

In addition to formulating a broad plan of action, the supervisor must help the teachers develop unit plans, departmental or area plans, "institute" plans, and daily plans. A tremendous amount of emphasis must be placed upon planning, because there is probably no type of work where the results of poor or insufficient planning can be so devastating as in teaching. The modern supervisor will consider one of his most important functions to be directing and helping teachers to plan cooperatively their activities in order to increase their effectiveness as directors of the educational process.

in process," rating and inspection were the only factors that need concern the supervisor.

BACKGROUND FOR EVALUATION

One function of supervision is to evaluate all aspects of the educational process. Specifically, an evaluation of the teacher cannot be considered apart from evaluations of the pupils, school plant, school community, administrative leadership, etc. For example, Miss B teaches American history in two different rooms. The first room is located next to the band room, the class meets the first period in the morning when, in addition to teaching, Miss B gives tardy slips to all pupils who arrive late. The second room is located in the new wing of the building adjoined on one side by a special-materials library and on the other by the English suite; the class meets the third period in the morning immediately after Miss B's free period. If Miss B's supervisor always evaluates her during the first period, he will not have the same opinion of her ability as a teacher of American history that he will have if he always evaluates her during the third period. Despite the fact that this example presents two extremes, it is still possible to find school inspectors and raters who establish a rigid schedule for observations and always observe individual teachers at the same time, on the same day, during the same semester every year.

The teachers' relations with the supervisor are often jeopardized when the evaluation question is considered. This is particularly true when the question is raised with older teachers. The modern supervisor must remember that the older teachers in the schools of today spent their early years of teaching under the rule of "inspecting and rating" supervisors. This group of teachers includes the veterans of the fight that threw "politics" out of many schools; these are the teachers who fought for tenure laws in order to feel secure from the actions of ruthless administrators and "rating and inspecting" supervisors. A modern supervisor needs to be very determined, tactful, and human when he inaugurates his program to convince this group that the purpose of supervisory evaluations is to discover individual teacher needs in order to help each teacher as an individual.

The majority of the younger teachers have experienced a type of modern supervision during their periods of student teaching. In the

The interest of the American public in having its teachers certified is considerably older than its interest in taking a responsibility for having them trained. Thus, even in colonial times it was customary for public authorities, usually the school committee, to examine candidates for public employment as teachers. Probably the chief anxiety of the examiners regarded the candidate's religious orthodoxy, for in those days this was of paramount importance where the pliant minds of the young were concerned. In addition, inquiry was also directed at what the candidate knew about the subjects he was to teach and especially how well he could "govern" a school. Any certificates issued on the basis of such an examination were usually good only for the locality over which the school committee presided and generally for no longer than a year.

In 1839 a full-time professional superintendent of schools was employed in Providence, Rhode Island. This is apparently the first instance of a city employing a professional superintendent although Buffalo had an appointed superintendent two years earlier. The concept of supervision being more than a teacher-rating responsibility seems very new when we realize the rating and inspection concept was the universal practice just a little over one hundred years ago. The preceding quotations both emphasize the fact that those who supervised teachers were mainly interested in their ability to "keep school" or to "govern a school." In other words, the program of education was designed to restrain and so rule boys and girls that they would unalterably conform to the pattern of life that was established by their elders. The people who developed this pattern of education were, as Brubacher has pointed out, insistent upon religious orthodoxy among teachers, but they had forgotten the words of the Psalmist who referred to human beings by saying: "They are not as the horse or the mule which hath no understanding: whose mouth must be held in with the bit and bridle. . . ." Actually we have learned only recently that to develop understanding a teacher must do more than keep or govern school. It was not until educators learned that the child grows as a whole, that growth is a continuous process, that some children learn best through the use of language materials and others through nonlanguage materials, that each child has an individual pattern of desires, fears, frustrations, etc.—that the need for a different type of supervisory program became apparent. As long as education was considered to be a "restraining and pouring

Using the Results of the Evaluation. The purpose of any program of evaluation is to discover the needs of the individuals being evaluated and then to design learning experiences that will satisfy these needs. Traditionally, the results of evaluation have been used to compare one individual with another. We have accepted the fact that growth is a continuous process and that each individual grows at a rate that is unique for him. This being true, we evaluate an individual in order to discover his needs and eventually we re-evaluate to determine how much progress he has made toward satisfying them.

Intelligent supervision and teaching must be based upon an evaluation program through which each individual's needs, strengths, and weaknesses are identified; the method of most efficient learning is determined; and ultimate objectives in life are crystallized. With this information available, the teacher or supervisor is in an objective position to design meaningful learning experiences.

Scope of the Evaluation. A complete evaluation would consider all aspects of community and school life that affect the growth of each teacher or pupil. For example, if we are to evaluate completely the educational growth of a pupil, we must evaluate his home life, community life, school life, the physical equipment available at school, his reactions to his teacher, etc. Obviously this is a Herculean undertaking for any school. However, many schools are attempting to conduct the major part of such an evaluatory program. Consequently, we will eventually touch all phases of the program, but in this chapter the discussion is confined to introducing the evaluation of methods, students, teachers, and supervisors.

EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF METHOD

All activities of the teacher should be evaluated in the light of their adequacy to promote *the democratic way of life. If the method* or methods employed by the supervisor and his teachers cause boys and girls to demonstrate the attitudes and competencies that are essential if the democratic way of life is to survive, then we may assume that the method has been successful. The dictatorial teacher and supervisor must become objects of the past. Their places must be filled by teachers and supervisors who have developed attitudes of respect for individual personalities and who understand the proper

future, student-teaching periods will become increasingly longer thus giving supervisors a greater opportunity to help these prospective teachers develop an understanding of the advantages of modern supervision.

In many schools the clash between old teachers and new teachers is just as sharp over the acceptance or rejection of modern supervision as it is over the acceptance or rejection of modern teaching methods. The danger in such situations is that the young teachers will succumb to the domination of the older teachers thereby negating all advances toward a modern program of supervision. If this condition develops, the supervisor is not blameless because the new teachers have succumbed in an attempt to secure the cooperation of the older teachers thus removing one of the many obstacles that confront them as they begin their careers. The supervisor must exert every effort to maintain a cooperative spirit between old and young teachers. If the relationship between these groups develops so that he has two rival camps to which his various teachers claim allegiance, his task will become immeasurably more difficult.

THE NATURE OF EVALUATION

Supervisors must consider three factors when they design programs for evaluation. The first factor is concerned with the method of evaluating; the second, using the results of the evaluation; and the third, the scope of the evaluation.

Method of Evaluation. Traditionally, tests and rating scales have been the chief evaluative instruments used with pupils and teachers respectively. In a modern program of supervision these evaluative instruments will continue in use, but the evaluation of the whole pupil or teacher will be completed through the use of play and growth records, anecdotal records, check lists, inventories, interviews, and batteries of tests designed to measure various aspects of the individual's physical, social, emotional, and mental status and growth. Obviously, all these techniques will not be used with both teachers and pupils. It is equally obvious that the same number of evaluative techniques will not be used with each pupil or each teacher. The goal in the program is to obtain a complete evaluation of each individual as a whole; the evaluator will use as many techniques as necessary to accomplish this goal.

The present concept of evaluation and appraisal is succinctly stated by Greene: [4]

The present view is that tests constitute probably the major type of evaluative instruments but that such other means of measurement as the anecdotal record, the interview, the questionnaire, the rating scale, and such tools as the individual pupil profile, the class record, the cumulative record, and the case study have a significant place in the evaluation of pupil behavior and achievement. The evaluation concept has also doubtless been stimulated by the recent attention of educators and psychologists to the whole child and his behavior. This tendency to consider the child as a whole, rather than as an individual whose behavior and abilities can be catalogued into a number of different compartments, places a responsibility upon the user of tests and other instruments of evaluation for considering the child in this broad sense. It is through the application of the evaluation concept rather than of the narrower concepts of measurement and testing that this result is most effectively obtained.

Unless the teacher aims in the classroom are quite specific, the students are apt to find the class very frustrating. A teacher who does not have specific aims is in an extremely poor position to employ the evaluation concept. This concept incorporates the student into the plan of evaluation, and it is certainly obvious that the student, as well as the teacher, must have some specific criteria against which to measure his progress.

To elaborate upon the quotation from Greene, it is necessary to consider some specific factors which operate in the evaluation concept.

1. The pupil must have a part in the evaluation. Our compulsory school laws force boys and girls to attend our public schools or their equivalent. We thus place our pupils in a very uncompromising situation, and we cannot earn their respect for, and confidence in, the educational process unless they understand that our educational aims are definite, desirable, and attainable. This understanding can be developed only by making each pupil an active part of the learning situation including the evaluation process.

2. The personal and social accomplishments of the student must be evaluated. To do this the teacher must know about the student's home

role to be played by individuals and groups in a democratic society. Kilpatrick [3] summarizes the problem this way:

Textbooks that serve as convenient vehicles to bring to the student the limited, and limiting, loads of information that have passed the tests of the expert's finishing room will be removed from the tyrannical position they have too long occupied. Class activities that encourage the teacher to be the sole source of particular answers will be recognized to have little educative value. Educational tests that set informational limits within which teachers must move (if they are to be judged successful by administrators who believe that the use of such tests is full evidence of the scientific spirit) will be reduced to their proper subordinate position in the teaching process.

It has been maintained in this text that method objectives and subject-matter objectives must have coexisting equality. It seems obvious that method, regardless of how democratically it might be conceived, would do little to promote the democratic way of life unless it implemented the student's understanding of the experiences and facts upon which the democratic way of life is founded. Consequently, any consideration of the evaluation of method must include in its scope the evaluation of the student's competencies and attitudes as they have evolved from his experiences with subject matter as well as method.

EVALUATION OF THE STUDENT

It is a function of the supervisor in a modern school to stimulate his teachers to consider, study, and use a broader concept of evaluation. Historically, measurement of pupil achievement in terms of specific skills, and, in a more modern sense, in terms of pupil skills, attitudes, and competencies has gone through three phases that have been called testing, measurement, and evaluation and appraisal. Only recently has the evaluation and appraisal concept come to the foreground. The stimulation for the change to the evaluation and appraisal concept followed the realization that only a part of the results of the educational process can be measured by paper-and-pencil tests.

[3] W. H. Kilpatrick *et al.*, *The Educational Frontier*, p. 210, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1933.

It is indeed gratifying to see reporting devices that stress the progress of the individual child. Supervisors who attempt to develop the evaluation concept with their teachers will find the task very difficult. They will be forced to exercise all the ingenuity they possess in order not to violate the personal integrity of their teachers and to show progress at the same time. The transition from a measurement or testing to an evaluation concept can only evolve at the rate at which the teachers are capable of changing.

The supervisor's task is not finished when he has stimulated his teachers to the point where they are considering a change in their reporting and evaluation procedures. Reporting devices are generally sent to the parents and, in his public-relations role, the supervisor must prepare the parents of the children for the change. This preparation can be carried on through the mediums of newspaper articles, home visitations by the supervisor and his teachers, and through organizations such as the local branch of the Parent-Teacher Association. Our schools cannot exist apart from the communities they serve; better teaching can result only when the school and community are working together harmoniously.

EVALUATION OF THE TEACHER

The evaluation of the effectiveness of the teacher must ultimately be made in terms of how nearly do the students realize the objectives for education. This realization is in a large measure determined by the teacher who selects aims in terms of the ultimate objectives, plans educational experiences that meet the needs of the students individually and collectively, and devises ways and means of motivating the students to make the most of the various educational experiences. The job of teaching is difficult and complex. Motivation procedures that are effective with one group may be totally innocuous with another group. Learning experiences that provide for the needs and interests of one group may be dull and stultifying to another group. The evaluative concept recognizes the fact that no one measuring device can be used to evaluate all phases of student growth. It is also true that no one measuring device can be used to evaluate all phases of teacher growth.

It seems obvious that teachers must be evaluated if the supervisor is to function as a teacher of teachers. Unfortunately many teachers fear to be evaluated because they feel the results of the evaluation

and community environment, his physical and mental health, and his probable level of intelligence. Items such as appreciation and understanding cannot be evaluated for the individual child unless the teacher knows something about the forces that are influencing the child out of school. The aim of evaluation is, not to discriminate against the child because he has a subnormal home condition, but to appraise his individual progress in light of the factors that influence it.

3. Standardized tests should be employed in the evaluation of the student. Many excellent standardized tests are available for measuring specific skills. The evaluation concept recognizes the importance of skill measurement but insists that the skills to be measured be of fundamental importance to the student's ultimate life-adjustment problems. If appropriate tests are not available or do not meet the needs of a particular school district, the supervisors would do well to direct and help their teachers create tests of a more objective nature.

4. Evaluation is a continuous process. Growth is a continuous process and can only be measured over a period of years. Boys and girls will undergo many changes during their school years, but each will experience these changes according to his own capacity.

A re-examination of the preceding four statements, plus the quotation from Greene, will indicate that the emphasis in the educational process must be placed upon the changes that take place in boys and girls in terms of specific aims. It will also be noticed that evaluation is considered to be an individual process for each child. Both of these factors are recognized by many administrators as evidenced by statements that appear on the "report cards" for their school districts. For example, the Denver Public Schools, *Report to Parents,*[5] incorporates the following statement on the cover of the card:

To parents:

At school we are trying, as you are in the home, to direct the growth of your child so that he may live wholesomely and effectively as an individual and as a member of a democratic group. Democracy is a way of living that demands the highest physical, emotional, social, and intellectual development of each member.

Children differ in interests, abilities, past experiences, and the rate at which they grow. In this report we are trying to describe your child's progress rather than to compare him with other children.

[5] *Report to Parents*, Denver Public Schools, Denver, Colo.

12. Prompt reporting in case of illness leading to tardiness or absence.
13. Maintenance of proper physical conditions in the classroom.
14. Courtesy to all people, adults and youth, involved in the school relationship.
15. Neat personal appearance.
16. Evidence of personal initiative to develop professionally.
17. Proper care of all school equipment.
18. An understanding of the nature of human growth and development.
19. Cooperation in afterschool activities.
20. Promptness in all things.

An evaluation of a teacher by a supervisor is partially an evaluation of the effectiveness of the supervision. It is likewise true that any evaluation of the pupils is also an evaluation of the teacher. The exact relationship between evaluations of the pupils, teachers, and supervisors is difficult to determine. One certainty in this problem is that *no single evaluating device will suffice to evaluate all growth* by pupils, teachers, and supervisors. In 1929 Courtis [6] divided this problem into three parts and stated:

In the appraisal of the results of supervision there are really three problems:

1. Measurement of the amount of supervision teachers receive.
2. Measurement of the changes produced in teachers by the supervision received.
3. Measurement of the effect upon the children by the changes in the teachers produced by supervision.

This problem is also recognized by Briggs [7] who presents the following statement from the Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association:

In the Superintendent Surveys Supervision there are reported the measured results of supervision by various studies under four heads:

1. Evaluation of supervision in terms of measured changes in the achievement of pupils.
2. Evaluation of supervision in terms of measured changes in teaching procedures.

[6] S. A. Courtis, "Problems in the Appraisal of Supervision," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 15, pp. 277-278, April, 1929.

[7] T. H. Briggs, *Improving Instruction*, p. 573, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1938.

will be used to destroy whatever security they have in their positions. Such fears are not unfounded for illustrations of the misuse of rating scales as evaluating devices are numerous. Even today it is a common practice to find instances in which teachers are given an annual rating based upon one observation. Practices of this type are to be condemned, and we may look forward to the day when they will be nonexistent.

The modern concept of supervision considers evaluation to be a help to the teacher. The evaluative concept takes the whole teacher into consideration, helps him to understand his strengths and weaknesses, and directs him through a program of self-improvement. Occasionally a beginning teacher will possess so many weaknesses which are revealed by evaluative techniques that it would be unfair to the students and impractical from the administrator's viewpoint to retain him in his position. These situations are always embarrassing and unfortunate, but as teacher-training institutions continue to refine their methods of selecting teacher candidates, fewer persons will fall into this category. Evaluating the teacher is one of the most important and difficult functions of the supervisor; it is basically a task of building an attitude toward evaluation and respecting individual personalities.

What does the supervisor have a right to expect from his teachers? The answer to this question will vary in specific situations, but in general, the supervisor has a right to expect the following:

1. Interest in teaching.
2. Initiative in teaching.
3. Resourcefulness in teaching.
4. An inquiring attitude rather than an incurious one.
5. Professional discreetness in the use of all records.
6. An understanding of modern methods of instruction.
7. A cooperative attitude in individual and group conferences.
8. A cooperative attitude toward
   Keeping records.
   Developing reports.
   Constructing tests.
9. An understanding of the difference between discipline and punishment.
10. The ability to maintain normal progression in the classroom.
11. Adequate planning before each class.

teacher is a very involved process, and if the evaluator does not carefully construct his program, he will discriminate against the teacher.

The tenet that teachers want supervision is substantiated by Replogle [8] who reports:

Teachers want help in:

1. Improving teaching methods and techniques.

2. Utilizing some of the newly discovered principles of group dynamics.

3. Locating and utilizing community resources.

4. Providing for individual differences in a crowded classroom.

5. Handling pupil behavior, discipline cases.

6. Meeting needs of atypical pupils.

7. Caring for the needs of the emotionally maladjusted.

8. Enabling teachers to evaluate their own teaching competency.

9. Using art and music to better advantage in the regular classroom situation.

10. Relating the on-going activity (unit, center-of-experience, project) to the problems, concerns, and tensions of pupils.

11. Using the current teaching situation to make more understandable the contemporary social realities (*i.e.*, social problems and forces which characterize our society).

12. Making better use of visual aids.

13. Locating and making available expert resource personnel as special problems arise.

14. Identifying and utilizing the possibilities of the current classroom activity (problem, unit, project, lesson) for purposes of clarifying, and enabling pupils better to understand, democratic values, loyalties, and beliefs.

15. Constructing and building teaching units on problems and topics not found in basic textbooks (*i.e.*, use of leisure time; consumer education; understanding one's self and others; United Nations; conservation; and making, choosing, and holding friends).

Teachers want help and direction in solving their problems; they do not want answers. The modern teacher knows that each teaching situation is unique in the problems it presents, and no supervisor can deliver a prescription that will solve all teaching problems. For example, item number 1 in the preceding list indicates that teachers want the supervisor to help them improve their teaching methods

[8] V. L. Replogle, "What Help Do Teachers Want?" *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 7, No. 7, p. 477, April, 1950.

3. Evaluation of supervision in terms of observed changes in the teaching and learning situation and in the community.

4. Evaluation of supervision in terms of judgments of individuals.

Quoting from the Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, Briggs continues his presentation of this problem by stating in part:

The indications from questionnaire studies and some twenty-five experiments involving measurement indicate that pupils taught by supervised teachers have made significant gains in achievement. These studies have been associated primarily with subject matter skills. Accumulated records reveal other types of desired changes such as increased interest in school and school work, regularity of attendance, continuation in school, and higher standards of living outside of school.

Teachers have frequently expressed their approval of the right kind of supervision—the kind that helped them. The types of supervisory activities that receive a high rating are demonstration teaching, group meetings, personal conferences, and courses of study. Almost all lists of supervisory aids desired by teachers included helpful, constructive suggestions, constructive criticism, and definite outlines of work, dealing with methods, management, subjects, and instructional materials.

One of the investigations reported by Briggs shows that a supervisory conference following a supervisory observation of teaching produces improvement in teaching which can be clearly seen at the next observation of teaching. Another study indicates that the supervisory time devoted to personal conferences tends to be more effective than the same amount of time devoted to group meetings.

A re-examination of the evidence up to this point should convince the doubters that teachers do want supervision of the right kind, that instruction is more effective when teachers are supervised, but that it is difficult to evaluate teachers objectively. It is certainly obvious that the nature of the evaluation process in a school system that provides supervision for its teachers is similar to the nature of a circle —in designing it, the beginning is arbitrarily decided. For example, the evaluation can begin with the pupils, proceed to the teachers, supervisors, administrators, community, etc. On the other hand, the evaluation might begin with the community, proceed to the administrators, supervisors, etc. The only certainty is that the evaluation of a

What constitutes a good program of evaluation for teachers? Based upon the concept that growth is a continuous process, the following points are basic to the development of a good program of teacher evaluation:

PRETEACHING REQUIREMENTS

1. An adequate application [*] form that will reveal certain types of information. For example:

Personal information including age, marital status, hobbies, family and home-community background. Health information including complete physical and mental health examinations.

Professional information including a complete academic record from all schools attended, areas in which the applicant is certified, participation in leadership activities involving boys and girls, participation in student divisions of professional teacher organizations.

Philosophical information including a statement pertaining to the applicant's conception of the task of teaching and his personal ambitions as far as the teaching profession is concerned.

2. An adequate testing program including selected personality, general culture, interest, and social competency examinations.

ON-THE-JOB EVALUATION

1. Cumulative record for each teacher including travel and graduate school experiences, participation in community activities, likes and dislikes of the teacher, methods of reacting to situations that are stimulating or nonstimulating, description of situations in which the teacher requests help, attitude toward group work, attitude toward other teachers, attitude toward boys and girls, attitude toward supervisors and administrators, etc. This record should begin with the information revealed on the application form. The teacher in the presence of his supervisor or administrator should have the opportunity to examine this record whenever he desires to do so. It is recommended that each individual conference be cooperatively evaluated by the supervisor and the teacher involved and that a copy of the evaluation be placed in the cumulative record. Under no circumstance should the contents of this record be kept as a secret from the teacher.

2. Personal and professional check lists. It is recommended that each supervisor cooperatively develop with his teachers personal and professional check lists that will reveal teacher strengths and weaknesses in

[*] This example includes suggestions that are indicative of the type of information the employing official should seek from the applicant.

and techniques. This request means that as a group they would like to consider methods of introducing and evaluating units; methods of motivating pupils to write creatively; methods of constructing interest corners, science, reading, hobby, etc. It is important to remember that teachers want help in planning these activities with their pupils; they do not want someone to perform the activities for them.

One seldom finds a teacher-evaluation program that is closely associated with teacher needs. These needs are known and are frequently expressed in statements such as the one presented above. Unfortunately many schools do not have a large enough supervisory staff to evaluate the teachers adequately. Consequently many schools are forced to compile annual ratings of their teachers based upon a general rating scale. For example, the teachers in one school city are annually classified as honor, superior, good, fair, or unsatisfactory on the basis of their administrator's judgment of their possession of the qualities or proficiency in the activities which follow:

1. Instructional effectiveness.
2. Contribution to good teaching conditions.
3. Extracurricular and extra-class service.
4. Service to the profession at large.
5. Personal attributes.
6. Clerical skill.
7. Efficient use of time.
8. Professional interest and growth.
9. Professional adaptability.
10. Physical fitness.
11. Professional relationships.
12. Community relationships.

Unquestionably these are desirable items for all teachers to consider, but a yearly rating of teachers in reference to these items would amount to little more than routine inspection of the teachers by a person in authority. Evaluation is the base upon which all group leadership is built. The routine inspection of teachers might well play a small part in the total evaluation, but it is insignificant by itself. The purpose for evaluating teachers is to determine their needs in reference to the educational process which they direct. However, the determination of needs is meaningless unless a program for teacher education is instituted that will meet the needs revealed by the evaluation.

lists, rather than scales or rating sheets, should suggest that we do not have a yardstick for measuring the effectiveness of a teacher. However, there are certain things that all teachers need to do well, but the lists of these things should be developed through group action, they should be constantly evaluated by the group, and once developed, teachers should be expected to employ the lists in order to improve their work.

EVALUATION OF THE SUPERVISOR

A considerable amount of discussion has been devoted to the personal and professional qualities a teacher should possess. At this point it is necessary to consider the qualities that should be possessed by a supervisor in a democratically administered school or school system.

We naturally expect a supervisor to possess the qualities of the good teacher, but we should demand that he possess specific qualities that are of a leadership nature. For example, the supervisor must be:

1. *Experienced.* The supervisor should be required to demonstrate his proficiency as a teacher before being appointed to a supervisory position. The extent of required teaching experience is problematical, but it probably should not be less than six successive school years. During the course of these years the prospective supervisor should demonstrate his intent to keep abreast of, and advance himself in, the areas he intends to serve as a supervisor.

2. *Trained.* In addition to the training a prospective supervisor has received in order to obtain certification as a teacher, he should have special training in the areas of sociology, forensics, human growth and development, evaluation, and school administration.

3. *Impartial.* Teachers will respect a supervisor who deals impartially with all. An impartial supervisor will be able to direct effectively the group process because he will try to bring out all points of view thus promoting objective discussion. Impartiality is a good stimulant to intra-intergroup cooperation.

terms of the aims that the supervisor and his teachers have developed for their department or area. It is further recommended that these lists be used as frequently as possible and that the teacher and the supervisor check or complete the lists together. The purpose of these lists is to reveal to the teacher those areas in which he needs help and to reveal to the supervisor those areas in which he should attempt to help the teacher. These lists must be constantly evaluated by the supervisor and his teachers to prevent them from becoming static and unharmonious with the rate of professional growth of the teachers.

3. *Personal and professional self-analysis lists.* It is recommended that each supervisor and his teachers cooperatively develop check lists for self-analysis. These lists might be composed of suggested methods or techniques, suggestions pertaining to personal appearance, to professional relationships, and to community relationships. These lists will supplement and in many cases overlap the lists suggested in the preceding section. The function of these lists is to stimulate the teachers to think continually about increasing their effectiveness as directors of the educational process. In order to be at all objective, these lists must be developed by the group. If the teachers have an objective attitude toward supervision, they should feel free to consult with their supervisor whenever they find themselves "wanting" according to their own self-analysis.[19] Like the personal and professional lists, these lists should be geared to the aims established for the teachers, not to some artificial authoritarian standard.

The emphasis in the preceding three points is upon group cooperation and check lists. Group action and individual action within a group are characteristics of democratic action. No one teacher standing apart from the other teachers in a modern school system can hope to meet the individual challenges represented by the individual needs and interests of all the pupils. No supervisor who maintains himself in an authoritarian position can hope to create an attitude toward supervision that will cause his teachers to solicit help and direction from him and from their fellow teachers. Teaching brings forth both individual and group problems that can be met only by individual and group action. The use of the words, check lists, and

[19] Supervisors should be prepared to offer immediate help to teachers when they request it. In order to do this, the supervisor must meticulously check the availability of all specialists in the school district or city, state department, state universities, and teachers colleges, and must hold himself in readiness to help at all times in any way he can.

The program of supervision should:

    1. Adopt the philosophy of democratic leadership.

II. The Principle of Leadership

    A supervisor should:

        1. Help teachers recognize and provide for individual differences in pupils.

    The program of supervision should:

        1. Recognize teaching as the most important work of the school.

III. The Principle of Planning

    A supervisor should:

        1. Have a comprehensive philosophy of modern education.

    The program of supervision should:

        1. Adopt plans to fit personnel and size of the school system.

IV. The Principle of Integration

    A supervisor should:

        1. Emphasize child development rather than subject mastery.

    The program of supervision should:

        1. Contribute to all-around pupil guidance.

V. The Principle of Creativity

    A supervisor should:

        1. Encourage teachers to discover more effective teaching devices and techniques.

    The program of supervision should:

        1. Keep alert to social change and progress.

VI. The Principle of Flexibility

    A supervisor should:

        1. Adopt supervision to care for individual differences in training, experience, and ability of teachers.

    The program of supervision should:

        1. Encourage teachers and supervisors to regard the curriculum as dynamic and changing.

VII. The Principle of Considerateness

    A supervisor should:

        1. Know how to get along with people.

    The program of supervision should:

        1. Respect the individuality of teachers and supervisors.

VIII. The Principle of Community Orientation

    A supervisor should:

        1. Know the problems, resources, and agencies of community life.

    The program of supervision should:

        1. Make curriculum adjustments that lead to utilization of community resources.

5. *Courageous.* The nature of the supervisor's work will frequently carry him into school and community situations in which his help is needed but in which he will encounter unpleasant and repelling situations. He must be able to meet such situations with an objective firmness. When conducting group meetings, he must be able to maintain courteously and impartially a democratic procedure.

6. *Patient.* Teachers grow at their own individual rates. The supervisor must recognize this fact and remain well poised and confident as the group attempts to reach a decision, formulate a plan of action, or as an individual teacher attempts to master a new method or process.

7. *Democratic.* The greatest tool that can be possessed by a supervisor is his respect for each individual teacher's personality. He must be able to maintain social equality among his teachers and at the same time employ and recognize the stimulation that superior teachers can offer to members of their group who have less ability. He must be able to conduct his group meetings so that each member has an opportunity to participate but must prevent monopolization of group time by uninformed or misinformed teachers.

The day will probably come when these specific qualities will be required of all school personnel. This probability is not practical at the present time, but those administrators who are in a position to appoint supervisors should demand that they possess these qualities.

All evaluation is difficult and the evaluation of the supervisor is no exception. The wise supervisor will solicit evaluation by his teachers, but the final evaluation of the supervisor will usually be rendered by the administrator to whom the supervisor is directly responsible. Ayer and Peckham [11] have prepared a set of 291 evaluated supervision practices that are classified under ten leading principles of supervision. The constructors of this list establish six purposes for it, of which the first, "to help principals, supervisors, and superintendents evaluate their own supervisory activities," and third, "to provide a basis for the evaluation of supervisory programs," are pertinent at this point. To illustrate this check list, the ten principles with selected associated items are presented below:

I. The Principle of Cooperation
    A supervisor should:
        1. Understand the functions of education in a democratic society.

[11] F. C. Ayer and D. R. Peckham, *Check List for Planning and Appraising Supervision,* The Steck Publishing Company, Austin, Texas, 1948.

10. An opportunity to participate in the selection of professional literature for the professional library.

11. An opportunity to participate in the selection of new verbal and nonverbal instructional materials.

12. An interpretation of his responsibility to participate in nonschool community organizations.

13. Assistance in the development of cooperative relationships with other departments or levels of instruction.

14. Assistance in the procurement of necessary instructional materials.

15. An opportunity to use the services of any or all specialists in the school organization.

16. Assistance in evaluating his professional growth as evidenced by his increased effectiveness as a director of the educational process.

This list or any item on it could be elaborated. It is not our intention or purpose to construct an exhaustive list of suggested services that a supervisor might render for his teachers. The preceding list includes many items that are basic to a good program of supervision; each school district can modify or elaborate this list to serve their own purposes.

In a final analysis, the work of the supervisor and teacher, indeed of all school personnel, must ultimately be evaluated in terms of how close do the pupils come to fully realizing the objectives for education. An evaluation cannot adequately be made by using a single check list, an isolated anecdotal record, or a battery of examinations; a complete evaluation will require the use of many techniques.

Evaluation is an important and delicate process not only from the standpoint of determining the needs and growth of programs and individuals but also from the standpoint of what it does to the individuals being evaluated. It is a challenge to the best in all of us to attempt to design evaluative programs that can be used to promote student, teacher, and supervisor growth toward desired ends. It is a condemnation for any of us to use evaluative techniques that leave warped personalities in their wake.

SUMMARY

The supervisor has constant relations with the teachers. Unfortunately his more delicate relations are concerned with the problem of teacher evaluation. The delicacy of this relationship would be

IX. The Principle of Objectivity
    A supervisor should:
        1. Know the theory and techniques of educational tests and
           measurements.
    The program of supervision should:
        1. Recognize the values and limitations of tests.
X. The Principle of Evaluation
    A supervisor should:
        1. Know the objectives of the school and of the field of instruc-
           tion with which his work is primarily concerned.
    The program of supervision should:
        1. Judge the outcomes of supervision in terms of objectives and
           guiding principles.

It is to be remembered that the principles and accompanying items quoted above are from a check list, not a rating scale. There is no "yardstick" with which to evaluate the program of supervision. The person or persons responsible for evaluating the program can more objectively perform their task by using guiding principles such as these which have been abstracted from a series of successful activities and conditions.

WHAT TEACHERS HAVE A RIGHT TO EXPECT FROM THE SUPERVISOR

Any consideration of an evaluation of the supervisor should include some identification of those things which each teacher has a right to expect from his supervisor. The following list is not complete but it does include many suggestions that are fundamental to a good program of supervision. The teacher has a right to expect:

1. An opportunity to participate actively in planning the program for supervision.

2. Assistance in interpreting the community background of his pupils.

3. Assistance in modernizing his methods and techniques of instruction.

4. Assistance in interpreting the results of the evaluation program.

5. Assistance in the construction and evaluation of daily lesson plans.

6. Assistance in using enrichment materials.

7. Assistance in using sensory aids.

8. Assistance in the maintenance of school records.

9. An opportunity to participate in the activities of professional organizations and state study groups.

Chapter 5. EVALUATING THE RESULTS OF TEACHING

The evaluation concept has been stimulated by the comparatively recent concentration of psychologists and educators upon the behavior of the whole child. This trend to consider the child as a whole, rather than a composite of parts each of which can be catalogued, is forcing educators to use individual pupil profiles, questionnaires, anecdotal records, and interviews, in addition to the traditional tests in order to evaluate adequately the development of the child. By using this concept of evaluation, rather than the traditional concept of testing and measurement, educators gain more knowledge about the background, needs, accomplishments, and desires of boys and girls.

The evaluation of boys and girls is only one phase of the evaluatory program in which the supervisor, or those responsible for supervision, must be interested. It has been stated before, that the first function of supervision is to help the teacher. Our basic laws of learning apply to the teacher as well as to the students assigned to him. Consequently, it is a mere truism to state that if teachers are to be helped they must be evaluated, but the results of the evaluation should be used to promote a growth concept rather than a "police" concept of supervision.

All who desire to be called teachers should be interested in continuous personal growth in their profession. To realize continuous growth teachers need access to self-evaluative techniques and supervision. Most teachers do not have adequate supervision; therefore, the need becomes of paramount importance for self-evaluative techniques or techniques by which school personnel, other than trained supervisors, can assist in the evaluation of the personal growth of the teachers.

It is impossible completely to separate evaluations of the students from evaluations of the teacher. It is necessary to establish a concept

lessened if all personnel associated with the educational process would understand that a single group, pupils, teachers, or supervisors, cannot be evaluated without involving all the other groups to some degree. Ultimately, the evaluation must consider the physical and social as well as the human characteristics of the school and community.

In this chapter selective evaluative techniques have been discussed. Throughout this chapter a plea for objectivity in evaluation has been sustained. Finally, it was suggested that the purpose of all evaluation is to determine how closely the pupils approximate the objectives for education.

youngsters are learning as much as I am we are doing fine. This first week has been for me a most illuminating experience.

In all probability this young teacher will receive very little if any supervision. He will be responsible for assigning grades to many pupils and yet he, like most of us, does not clearly understand all the implications of the word.

What Is a Grade? Tiegs [1] presents the following very interesting discussion concerning grades:

Certainly it is not a group of pupils who are similar in intelligence, reading ability, and personality characteristics. The typical grade is composed of pupils in which the least mature pupil has a mental age five to seven years below that of the brightest pupil, and in which pupils with the same, or virtually the same, I.Q.'s may differ as much as five to eight years in language and non-language ability. A typical fifth grade reading class will have pupils who read only as well as the average third-grader (sometimes the average second-grader) and some who can read as well as the average eighth-grader; in other words they require a spread of four or five years in the difficulty of reading materials which are appropriate for them in view of their varying reading competence in pursuing their educational activities. A typical sixth grade class in arithmetic will contain some pupils with third or fourth grade achievement, and some who do as well as the average eighth- or ninth-graders. A typical class on any level will have some pupils who are happy, secure, successful, and well adjusted; some who are shy, who are diffident, who lack self-reliance and sense of personal worth, and a feeling of belonging; and often one or more who show definite attacking behaviors, usually designated as anti-social tendencies, or who possess nervous symptoms, which may be the outward evidences of conflicts, unsatisfied desires, and problems which they cannot solve. The so-called grade is, therefore, a group of pupils who are designated as belonging to the same group, and who frequently sit in the same room, but whose abilities, achievements, problems, desires, and frustrations vary so widely that to treat them as if they were homogeneous, or nearly so, can only result in a continuance of the time-consuming and meaningless activity that too long passed for teaching in out-of-date schools. So far as obtaining homogeneity is concerned, pupils could be grouped by chronological age, and there would be less diversity than with the present "grade" criterion.

[1] E. W. Tiegs, *Educational Diagnosis*, pp. 5–6, California Test Bureau, Educational Bulletin No. 18, Los Angeles, Calif., 1948.

of this relationship as it applies to the evaluatory techniques that
will be discussed.

CAN WE TEACH SO THAT NOBODY FAILS?

Periodically during the course of the school year, most teachers
are required to assign marks or grades to pupils. Each time this pro-
cedure takes place, a large number of pupils are classified as failures.
All supervisors must be interested in the number of failures because
ultimately the success of the educational program must be measured
in terms of the number of pupils who successfully achieve the ob-
jectives for education.

Pupil failure is seldom if ever unilateral. Pupils fail because some-
one has failed them at home, in the neighborhood, or at school.
Before a teacher assigns a failing grade to a pupil, he should ask
himself the following questions:

1. Did the pupil fail or did I fail him?
2. If I failed the pupil, did the supervisor fail me?
3. If I fail the pupil does his whole family fail?
4. Did the pupil fail or did the home fail the pupil?
5. Did the pupil fail or did the community fail the pupil?
6. Did the pupil fail or did the school fail the pupil?
7. Will the pupil continue to make progress toward the objectives
   for education if I fail him?
8. Do I really know if the pupil is a failure?
9. What will the other pupils say to, and about, the one who has
   failed?
10. Will the other pupils or myself profit if I fail this pupil?

Many teachers have asked these questions time and time again,
but limitations within the public school system make adequate
answers impossible. Many teachers are overloaded with the result
that they do not have the time or energy to maintain an adequate
system of evaluation. For example, a beginning teacher described his
first assignment in the following manner:

I have taken a position here, as you have seen, with . . . The town is
very small but the school is a very fine one and I am very much pleased
with everything. I am responsible for all of the high school English, the
yearbook, the newspaper, the library, dramatics, and a junior home room.
In addition I am expected to help with sports and am junior class advisor.
So I have my hands full, but would rather be busy than not. If the

that the results of evaluation will be used only for the purpose of promoting or failing pupils. When this philosophy prevails, the immediate aim for the educational process is to prepare boys and girls to make acceptable scores on examinations. The maintenance of this attitude by any percentage of our people indicates a condition that is not conducive to good school-community relationships.

Fortunately the majority of our people believe and have expressed their faith in the advantage of a free public education for all youth. When this philosophy prevails, evaluation is an objective method of discovering the needs of individual pupils and the basis upon which the curriculum experiences for each individual pupil are built. The prevalence of this philosophy stimulates excellent school-community relationships.

In the first part of this chapter a number of significant supervision problems have been presented. To provide a firm basis upon which to proceed and to emphasize these problems, let us review our thinking up to this point:

1. The trend to consider the child as a whole is forcing educators to use many evaluatory techniques. The teacher who has only used tests as a means of evaluation will need supervisory help when he first begins to use individual pupil profiles, questionnaires, anecdotal records, interviews, etc.

2. Most teachers are periodically required to assign grades or marks; therefore, in an attempt to modernize this procedure the supervisor should direct the attention of his teachers to the implications it holds for the person who receives the grade or mark and his associates.

3. The pupils at any level in the average public school are very different. For example, the typical grade is composed of pupils in which the least mature has a mental age five to seven years below that of the brightest pupil, and in which pupils with the same, or virtually the same, I.Q.'s may differ as much as five to eight years in language and non-language ability (refer to previous quotation from Tiegs). To meet the challenge of this situation the supervisor must carefully direct his teachers to employ the necessary evaluative criteria in order to have a sound base upon which to design experiences that will meet the needs of all pupils.

4. In all communities there will be a certain percentage of the people who believe the schools exist only for those pupils who can achieve certain academic standards. As an interpreter of the community, the supervisor must direct and help his teachers to understand the implications of this attitude for the educational program.

A grade can be a school mark or rating, or a grade can be a group of pupils. The preceding quotation enforces our right to maintain that grades or marks have been used for years to pass or to restrict our youth from passing from one level of school organization to the next. All too frequently the same measures have been applied to all the youth at one level regardless of their wide range in ability, attainment, and needs. No level of school organization represents a homogeneous grouping of boys and girls, yet in a majority of schools there is one curriculum for each level. This fact supports the recommendation, set forth in the preceding chapter, to the effect that in a modern school each child must be studied and the results of the study be used to design a series of curriculum experiences for him. If our youth must attain a certain mark or grade requirement before they are passed from one educational level to the next, we would do well to accept Tiegs' apparent suggestion that this requirement be represented by the youth's chronological age.

Tiegs [2] also makes the statement that:

Educational diagnosis is the basis of intelligent teaching. Its function is to facilitate the optimum development of every pupil. The following activities must become routine: (1) Determining, for each pupil, which of his factors of intelligence are strong and which are weak; (2) whether he learns better through language or non-language materials and situations; (3) what his unattained objectives are; (4) and the nature of his desires, his fears, and his frustrations.

Pupils with identical I.Q.'s may have grossly different learning problems. The modern teacher cannot effectively plan for the educational experiences of the pupils in his group until reports of the results of the objective study of all their needs are available to him.

PUBLIC EDUCATION, AN INVESTMENT IN TODAY AND TOMORROW

The belief that all the children of all the people should have the opportunity for a free public education through the secondary-school level is not shared by all of our people. There are many people who believe that free public schools should be operated only for those who can achieve certain academic standards.

Anyone who believes that our schools are only for that group of our youth who can meet certain academic standards must recognize

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 4.

of evaluation proves this practice to be false and discriminatory against every child to whom it is applied. This fact can be readily illustrated by two examples. First, all children are different; therefore, a single number or letter cannot be used to describe the many possibilities a child encounters for growth in each area. Second, a letter grade scale representing certain numerical areas can signify a child to be a failure or to some degree a success on the basis of *one point, e.g.,* if a child earns a grade of 70 he is a success to some degree; if he earns a grade of 69, he is a failure. The degree of possible discrimination in this practice is heightened by the realization that all teachers are fallible and those who are using such scales usually base their positive judgments on subjective examinations.

Many parents are so habituated to receiving the traditional type of report from the school that if the practice were changed, without an accompanying explanation, they would become critical of the new practice. The intelligent supervisor and his teachers will always prepare the parents for change. It is difficult to predict the nature of reporting practices for the future. In Chap. 4, reference was made to the Denver Public Schools, *Report to Parents.* This report, the major part of which is reproduced below, does not represent an ultimate in reporting practices, but it does offer us an example of a sound advance step toward the development of modern reporting practices. The four-page report is intended for use in the elementary school. Page 1 includes an attractive illustration in bright colors and the following message: [3]

To Parents:

At school we are trying, as you are in the home, to direct the growth of your child so that he may live wholesomely and effectively as an individual and as a member of a democratic group. Democracy is a way of living that demands the highest physical, emotional, social, and intellectual development of each member.

Children differ in interests, abilities, past experiences, and the rate at which they grow. In this report we are trying to describe your child's progress rather than to compare him with other children.

There seems to be a definite trend to include messages to parents on reports to parents. In the preceding message, the school has sug-

[3] *Report to Parents,* Denver Public Schools, Denver, Colo.

Progress in Subject Fields	FIRST			SECOND		
	Satisfactory Progress	Shows Improvement	Needs to Improve	Satisfactory Progress	Shows Improvement	Needs to Improve
SPEAKING						
Expresses ideas well						
Speaks clearly						
Uses correct forms of English						
READING						
Shows growth in reading skills						
Reads with understanding						
Reads widely						
WRITING						
Expresses ideas well						
Shows creative ability and imagination						
Writes legibly						
Spells correctly in written work						
SOCIAL STUDIES						
Is interested in the problems of the class						
Contributes to the planning of activities						
Gathers pertinent information						
Draws valid conclusions						
Organizes and presents material well						
Builds new understanding into his everyday living						
ART						
Enjoys art activities						
Shows skill in handling tools and materials						
Shows creative ability and originality						
MUSIC						
Enjoys singing						
Is learning to read music						
Enjoys listening to music						
ARITHMETIC						
Uses numbers readily						
Is learning number facts and processes						
Can solve problems independently						

Personal and Social Development	FIRST			SECOND		
	Satisfactory Progress	Shows Improvement	Needs to Improve	Satisfactory Progress	Shows Improvement	Needs to Improve
PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT						
Seems to have good general health and energy						
Practices good health habits						
Shows physical skill and coordination						
SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT						
Gets along with others						
Does his share in a group activity						
Accepts authority						
Shows leadership						
PERSONAL RESPONSIBILITY AND SELF-DIRECTION						
Thinks for himself						
Shows self-confidence and poise						
Cares for property						
Is creative and resourceful						
Has a variety of interests						
WORK HABITS						
Listens to and follows directions						
Has materials ready and starts promptly						
Finishes work on time						
Takes pride in neat, accurate work						

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE...

IS AT HIS BEST IN...

SHOWS GREATEST NEED FOR IMPROVEMENT IN...

....

....

The value of this report depends upon the attention you give it. Talk it over with your child.

Visit your child in his classroom. Arrange for a conference with the teacher.

Help your child select his books, radio programs, movies, and other leisure time activities.

Write your comments and suggestions and sign this card before returning it.

Supervisors should constantly evaluate the effectiveness of the report forms they are using. Two examples of report forms have been presented; both have strong points and are undoubtedly adjusted to the needs of the communities which they represent.

The previous two report forms have been designed to include a rather complete report of all the pupils' activities. At the secondary level, departmental supervisors occasionally issue departmental reports of individual pupil progress. An example of a report of this type [6] appears on the following page.

It is interesting to note that all the report forms used here as examples provide the evaluator with the opportunity to check the pupil's progress toward the attainment of social goals. This fact is entirely in harmony with the changes that are being made in the statement of the objectives for education.[7]

It is always difficult to draft a report form that will be equally meaningful to parents and the community's educational personnel. In an attempt to organize their thinking about this problem, a group of teachers prepared the following criteria for report forms: [8]

1. A report which requires a minimum amount of clerical work.

2. A report to which the community is educated.

3. A report which promotes understanding both within the home and the school.

4. A report which will inform parents of progress in all phases, physical and social as well as mental.

5. A report which states in simple terms the philosophy of the school; in other words, the ultimate goals of education.

[6] R. Schorling, *Student Teaching*, p. 320, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

[7] These changes are discussed in Chap. 2.

[8] College of Education, Butler University, Indianapolis, Ind., 1947.

gested home-school cooperation, outlined the areas in which the growth of the child will be directed at school, and concludes with a brief statement describing the nature of the report. The following statement is another example of a message to parents: [4]

To the Parents:

We cannot stress too strongly the importance of the years your child will spend in Junior High School. In these years he should develop certain habits which will be of value to him throughout his entire life. Proper habits of study . . . regularity and punctuality, industry, and courtesy are just a few that can be mentioned.

This will be his first contact with children from other parts of the city. Give him good advice in choosing his friends.

Teachers can be of the greatest service only if you know each other. Visit the school and know the teachers.

We consider the business of training children the most important one in the City of Williamsport.

Our venture will be successful in so far as you will cooperate in the training of your child.

<div align="right">Superintendent of Schools</div>

The emphasis in this message is ultimately upon school-home cooperation in the city's most important business, "the training of children." Both report forms provide a space for the signature of the principal and teacher. In addition, the Williamsport form bears the name of the superintendent of schools. Some educators do not believe this to be a good practice, but an equal, if not a greater number, employ it as a means of direct communication from the superintendent to the home. It is difficult to see how this practice can do any harm and it might be of considerable value; in any case, each school district or city must make the decision in this matter.

The Williamsport message suggests certain habits that students should develop and encourages the parents to counsel with their children. The fourth page of the Denver report includes spaces for teacher and parent comments and the following "Suggestions to Parents": [5]

---

[4] "Records of Scholarship, Attendance, and Deportment," Williamsport Public Schools, Williamsport, Pa.

[5] *Report to Parents.*

6. A report which includes adjustment to life as well as to school subjects.

7. A report which sets up a standard of value of work for its own sake rather than for marks or other emoluments.

8. A report which is suitable to the age level for which it is made.

9. A report which is understandable to the child himself.

10. A school record which includes both objective and subjective material.

11. A type of record which, in case of transfer, facilitates early and proper adjustment of the child in his new situation.

12. A record and report which shall take into consideration the child as an individual as well as the child as a member of a social group.

13. A type of record and report which will indicate scholastic achievement, individual adjustment, and social growth.

A report form that meets the preceding specifications would undoubtedly be a good one, but it would not be ideal. This list does not stress the desirability of eliminating comparison of one pupil with another; it neglects to mention the emotional development of the pupil; it does not include suggestions for the physical composition of the report form. To complete the omissions of this interesting list, the supervisor and his teachers should study it in conjunction with the following list by Schorling and Wingo: [9]

THE SPECIFICATIONS OF A GOOD REPORT CARD

1. Place equal emphasis on the mental, social, and physical development of children.

2. Eliminate comparison of the individual pupil with the achievement of the other pupils in the class.

3. Indicate the aims of the school and the general objectives of education.

4. Report the achievement of the pupils in relation to the specific aims of each area of the curriculum.

5. Diagnose the pupil's difficulties, and follow with suggestions for improvement.

6. Provide for pupil self-analysis.

7. Consist of a personalized message to pupil and parent.

8. Be attractive in composition, appearance of printing, and quality of paper.

[9] R. Schorling and G. M. Wingo, *Elementary-school Student Teaching*, p. 371, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1950.

MATHEMATICS DEPARTMENT—REPORT ON PROGRESS

Name.......................

Grade..............

Date...................   Date....................

Mathematics goals	Pupil's estimate				Teacher's estimate			
	Needs attention	Normal	Good	Excellent	Needs attention	Normal	Good	Excellent
Growth in:								
1. Control of basic skills.........								
2. Understanding of fundamental ideas....................								
3. Ability to apply *fundamental* principles....................								
4. Ability to solve problems.......								
5. Understanding of necessary vocabulary....................								
6. Understanding the idea of relationship....................								
7. Ability to express himself mathematically....................								
8. General power and mathematical experience.............								
9. Ability to read.............								
10. Ability to generalize.........								
Social goals								
Growth in:								
1. Ability to follow directions.....								
2. Sustained attention...........								
3. Cooperation.............								
4. Individual responsibility........								
5. Accuracy of results...........								
6. Precision of statement.........								
7. Systematic procedures........								
8. Ability to work independently...								
9. Critical attitude toward reasonableness of results...........								
10. Openmindedness—delayed judgment.............								
11. Resourcefulness—ingenuity, inventiveness.................								
12. Impersonal attitude toward criticism.................								

Comments:

Teacher's Signature....................

Parent's Signature....................

6. A report which includes adjustment to life as well as to school subjects.

7. A report which sets up a standard of value of work for its own sake rather than for marks or other emoluments.

8. A report which is suitable to the age level for which it is made.

9. A report which is understandable to the child himself.

10. A school record which includes both objective and subjective material.

11. A type of record which, in case of transfer, facilitates early and proper adjustment of the child in his new situation.

12. A record and report which shall take into consideration the child as an individual as well as the child as a member of a social group.

13. A type of record and report which will indicate scholastic achievement, individual adjustment, and social growth.

A report form that meets the preceding specifications would undoubtedly be a good one, but it would not be ideal. This list does not stress the desirability of eliminating comparison of one pupil with another; it neglects to mention the emotional development of the pupil; it does not include suggestions for the physical composition of the report form. To complete the omissions of this interesting list, the supervisor and his teachers should study it in conjunction with the following list by Schorling and Wingo: [9]

THE SPECIFICATIONS OF A GOOD REPORT CARD

1. Place equal emphasis on the mental, social, and physical development of children.

2. Eliminate comparison of the individual pupil with the achievement of the other pupils in the class.

3. Indicate the aims of the school and the general objectives of education.

4. Report the achievement of the pupils in relation to the specific aims of each area of the curriculum.

5. Diagnose the pupil's difficulties, and follow with suggestions for improvement.

6. Provide for pupil self-analysis.

7. Consist of a personalized message to pupil and parent.

8. Be attractive in composition, appearance of printing, and quality of paper.

[9] R. Schorling and G. M. Wingo, *Elementary-school Student Teaching*, p. 371. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1950.

MATHEMATICS DEPARTMENT—REPORT ON PROGRESS

Name.........................

Grade...............

Date.................... Date....................

Mathematics goals	Pupil's estimate				Teacher's estimate			
	Needs attention	Normal	Good	Excellent	Needs attention	Normal	Good	Excellent
Growth in:								
1. Control of basic skills..........								
2. Understanding of fundamental ideas......................								
3. Ability to apply fundamental principles....................								
4. Ability to solve problems.......								
5. Understanding of necessary vocabulary....................								
6. Understanding the idea of relationship....................								
7. Ability to express himself mathematically...................								
8. General power and mathematical experience.............								
9. Ability to read..............								
10. Ability to generalize..........								
Social goals								
Growth in:								
1. Ability to follow directions.....								
2. Sustained attention...........								
3. Cooperation.................								
4. Individual responsibility.......								
5. Accuracy of results...........								
6. Precision of statement.........								
7. Systematic procedures........								
8. Ability to work independently...								
9. Critical attitude toward reasonableness of results............								
10. Openmindedness—delayed judgment......................								
11. Resourcefulness—ingenuity, inventiveness..................								
12. Impersonal attitude toward criticism....................								

Comments:

Teacher's Signature....................

Parent's Signature....................

3. To express ideas to the pupils' satisfaction.

4. To take stock of (my) knowledge of the English language.

PUPILS' GOAL

1. To develop facility of expression.

2. To practice construction of good sentences.

3. To learn to express ourselves interestingly and well.

4. To learn and understand the sentence as a tool of expression.

CONTENT OUTLINE

1. Taking inventory.

2. Sentences written by pupils (examination of).

3. Diagnostic tests 1 and 2 (from text).

GROUP ACTIVITY

1. Examination of sentences.

2. Study pupil compositions, creative writing.

3. Revising each other's sentences.

INDIVIDUAL ACTIVITY

1. Make and keep a chart showing individual weaknesses.

2. Do individually any additional drill necessary.

3. Complete at least 3 or 4 tests per day (from text).

The emphasis in these first sections is upon the student who, under the direction of the teacher, is to test himself as part of taking an inventory of his knowledge of the sentence as a tool for expressing his thoughts. This inventory concludes with the following subdivision:

SUMMARY

1. Decide wherein lie your greatest weaknesses.

2. Ask for further help.

3. Use your good textbook often.

4. Do something about helping yourself to overcome any weakness you discovered from taking the inventory.

The method presented above is truly evaluative because it is designed not only to discover pupil weaknesses but to project future plans for correcting these weaknesses.

At the Indiana University Laboratory school, a serious attempt is made to maintain a comprehensive evaluation of each child. In the preprimary division, this evaluation includes a continuous anec-

The question, *can we teach so that nobody fails*, will be partially answered for the pupils when all schools have adopted and used the results of procedures which make possible an evaluation of the whole child. The public schools have grown so fast that some educators fear the entire school program is being geared to the level of the average pupil with the result that the needs of the more capable pupils are being neglected. Supervisors and teachers must constantly beware that this does not happen. All schools should identify the more capable students as early as possible and should enlist the cooperation of their homes in a program to give them all possible encouragement.

METHODS OF EVALUATING STUDENTS

The fact that the whole pupil should be evaluated has been stressed constantly. To accomplish this type of an evaluation a school system must first inaugurate a testing program that will measure each child's social, emotional, physical, and intellectual status and development. Tests are available in each of these areas, and each school system must accept the responsibility for selecting the test or battery of tests that most nearly serves its purpose.

In addition to the types of tests suggested in the preceding paragraph, many supervisors encourage their teachers to develop other types of valuable evaluative devices. Tests are probably the major evaluative instrument, but anecdotal records, interviews, rating scales, questionnaires, etc., should also be used to complete the evaluation. A very worth-while project for a school staff, department, or area is to attempt the construction of some type of evaluative material. The possibilities in this type of group or individual work are unlimited and fascinating to the creative teacher and supervisor. For example, a junior-high-school English teacher has developed a review unit entitled, The Sentence: The Tool of Our Thoughts, an Inventory Unit.[10]

PUPILS' CONCERN

1. To realize that the sentence is an expression of thought.
2. To become aware of good sentences.

[10] This unit has been developed by Mrs. A. P. Blair, of the Williamsport School District, Williamsport, Pa.

permanence that all the criticism that has been directed toward it has failed to stop its use by many people. Recognizing this fact, Greene and others have developed the accompanying *Tentative Score Card for Rating Essay-type Examination Questions.*[11]

TENTATIVE SCORE CARD FOR RATING ESSAY-TYPE EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

	Yes	Slightly	No
1. Is the question concerned with important phases of the subject?..............................			
2. If the question emphasizes minor details, are they useful in linking up other facts, ideas, theories, involved in the subject?........................			
3. Does the question give emphasis to evaluation and to relational thinking?.....................			
4. Is the question apparently of a suitable degree of difficulty in relation to the other questions in the test?..			
5. Is the question stated in such a way as to stimulate thought, to challenge interest of pupils?..........			
6. Does the question force the pupil to integrate his ideas around certain interest-centers?............			
7. Is the question stated in such form as to force the pupil to sample widely into his background of fact?			
8. Does the question call for any originality of thought organization and expression?....................			
9 Does the question call for the pupil to integrate facts gained from different sources?....................			
10. Is the question limited sufficiently that the pupil has some chance of writing what he really knows about it in a reasonable time?.........................			

Many times a supervisor and his teachers will be confronted with conditions that cannot be removed. The pleasure in their work at such times evolves around their combined attempts to improve these conditions, not in creating a *continuous series of complaints for the administration to review.*

The creative supervisor will stimulate his teachers to design more

dotal record with the following divisions: physical, mental, social and emotional, parent cooperation; reading aptitude tests; intelligence test results including verbal and nonverbal scores; samples of the child's work; and the very interesting *Play and Growth Record* which is presented below. This record is maintained weekly, and it is

KINDERGARTEN-NURSERY-SCHOOL PLAY AND GROWTH RECORD *

Name_____ Date_____

	Materials	People	Happenings
Breadth of interest..........................			
Ways of employing self......................			
Ways of meeting whatever happens............			
Ways of showing interest in or understanding of things..................................			
Things giving satisfaction...................			
Ways of showing satisfaction.................			
Things giving dissatisfaction.................			
Ways of showing dissatisfaction..............			
Newly acquired abilities.....................			

Recorder_____

* *Play and Growth Record*, University School, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

a fascinating experience to have the privilege of studying a child's progress through an analysis of a set of these records. Supervisors will undoubtedly have some teachers who complain that all this record keeping is valuable but too time-consuming. There is no doubt that a teacher must devote more time to records if he is going to objectively evaluate each child. But a professionally minded teacher in a modern school cannot intelligently plan learning experiences for all the children unless he knows their individual needs. Consequently, until an adequate method has been devised to eliminate the time-consuming factor, the better teacher will plan his work in such a way that he has an adequate amount of time for evaluation.

Through the years one of the most controversial types of evaluatory procedures has been the essay-type examination question. The long and wide use of this type of question has given it a place of such

Secondary-school students need to be checked physically just as much as elementary and primary children. For some mysterious reason many of our secondary teachers have thought it to be a good idea for elementary teachers to make charts for evaluating pupils according to the criteria listed above but considered it unnecessary for secondary teachers to do the same. This belief is entirely erroneous, and it is entirely feasible that the reason for many of our present secondary-school failures is our neglect to check adequately and systematically the general physical condition of the students at this level.

To be successful in our present schools, pupils must become increasingly more proficient to study independently. A pupil can only study independently when he reads effectively. At the primary and intermediate levels, many teachers have access to reading supervision. As we progress upward through our levels of public-school organization, we find fewer and fewer reading supervisors and an increasing emphasis upon independent study. This is an example of an inane condition in which teachers are deprived of one type of supervision when they need it most. The newer types of methodology all seem to emphasize independent study; consequently, secondary and elementary teachers would be wise to consider the group construction of reading check lists composed along the lines of the following types of items:

OBSERVATIONS DURING READING OR STUDY PERIODS

Does the pupil

	Yes	No
1. Confuse the following letters in reading and spelling:		
a. a and *o*?	—	—
b. e and *c*?	—	—
c. n and *m*?	—	—
d. etc.	—	—
2. Tend to lose his place on the page?	—	—
3. Frequently change the distance at which he holds the reading material?	—	—
4. Project his head forward to see distant objects?	—	—
5. Squint and distort his face when looking at distant objects?	—	—
6. Wrinkle his forehead or distort his face in any manner when reading at his seat?	—	—
7. Have difficulty aligning his words when writing?	—	—
8. Etc.	—	—

efficient methods of recording necessary information in order to maintain a complete evaluation for each child. The following examples are not perfect but they do represent types of materials that teachers can develop:

CLASSROOM HEALTH INFORMATION

Items	Grade level											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Height												
Hearing												
Vision												
Total days absent												
Weight(monthly)												
September												
October												
November												

CHECK LIST FOR SURVEYING EYE ABNORMALITIES

Check eyes for

	Yes	No
1. Dark circles beneath eyes......	——	——
2. Red eyelids....	——	——
3. Crust formations on eyelids or among lashes............................	——	——
4. Styes...	——	——
5. Eyes that water..	——	——

Check pupil behavior for

	Yes	No
1. Continual blinking while reading.......................................	——	——
2. Attempts to brush "blur" away from eyes...............................	——	——
3. Squinting.	——	——
4. Quick frustration when new symbols or words are introduced........	——	——
5. Drowsiness following each reading period..............................	——	——

SPECIAL ABILITIES CHART

	Year in school											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Art												
Charcoal												
Oil												
Athletics												
Dodge ball												
Baseball												
Basketball												
Music												
Vocal												
Instrumental												

Charts such as these can be expanded indefinitely or be restricted to meet the needs of a particular situation.

If both this chart and the one that precedes it are constructed, teachers will find that many of the items are complemental. When this occurs, it must be considered as an advantage because it affords the teacher an objective method of checking the extent to which the selection of hobbies or evidences of interest are based upon ability. Lack of interest and fear of failure rank high among the causes for students dropping out of school. If charts such as these are begun for each student in his first year of school and are expanded to cover all the curriculum experiences, the supervisors and teachers would have a graphic way of recognizing the time when a student's interests begin to wane and when his abilities and interests are no longer complemental. With this information available, the teacher can be more

the needs of its individual students to design curriculum experiences that will help them make adequate life adjustments. Supervisors and their teachers must develop programs that will provide them with a complete evaluation of each child. This program should basically be built upon:

1. Objective tests that will measure each child's social, emotional, physical, and intellectual status and development. There are many such tests available, and each school must select those that serve its purposes best.

2. In addition to tests, anecdotal records, interviews, rating scales, questionnaires, etc., should be used to complete the evaluation. The *emphasis in this section has been upon the idea that the skillful supervisor should stimulate his teachers individually and as a group to create* techniques for better accomplishing this part of the evaluation program. Numerous examples of work of this type have been presented in an attempt to guide those supervisors and teachers who are participating in this type of activity for the first time.

METHODS OF EVALUATING TEACHERS AND OTHER SCHOOL PERSONNEL

The wise administrator will adopt a principle from the program of student evaluation and objectively attempt to evaluate the whole supervisor. It is recommended that all applicants for the teaching profession should be *required to take examinations that will measure* their physical, mental, emotional, and intellectual status. When these teachers have been members of the profession for the required number of years to become, from a standpoint of experience, eligible for a supervisor's position, *it is probably impractical, if not unprofessional,* to demand that they take another series of such examinations. However, the cumulative records of all teachers should reveal the programs they have been following for self-improvement and an estimate of their emotional stability, social adaptability, leadership ability, and teaching effectiveness. All school personnel should submit to regular physical examinations, and the results of these examinations should be filed in each person's cumulative record and should be an integral part of their evaluation.

The task in the evaluation of the teacher thus becomes one of mobilizing as objectively as possible the type of information indicated in the preceding paragraph. This matter of evaluating the teacher was discussed at some length in Chap. 3. To review briefly, the prac-

objective as he guides the student toward a more satisfactory life adjustment.

Supervisors and teachers are interested in the growth of each pupil as an individual and as a member of a democratic group. It is always interesting to study a pupil's reactions to the group of which he should be a member. To facilitate and record the results of this study, the following example might be suggestive of an evaluative technique:

<div style="text-align:center">

John Jones   Reaction to Group

General attitude toward group

</div>

	Yes	No
Does the individual		
1. Remain by himself		
a. All of the time?	___	___
b. Part of the time?	___	___
c. Never?	___	___
2. Claim membership to a specific gang?	___	___
3. Claim membership to more than one gang?	___	___

<div style="text-align:center">

Description of companions

</div>

Does the individual		
1. Associate with members of the opposite sex who are older		
a. All of the time?	___	___
b. Part of the time?	___	___
c. Never?	___	___
2. Associate with members of the opposite sex who are younger		
a. All of the time?	___	___
b. Part of the time?	___	___
c. Never?	___	___
3. Associate with members of the same sex who are older		
a. All of the time?	___	___
b. Part of the time?	___	___
c. Never?	___	___
4. Associate with members of the same sex who are younger		
a. All of the time?	___	___
b. Part of the time?	___	___
c. Never?	___	___

<div style="text-align:center">

General evaluation of individual's relation to group

</div>

Does the individual		
1. Exercise a leadership role in one group?	___	___
2. Exercise a leadership role in more than one group?	___	___
3. Appear to feel rejected by all groups?	___	___
4. Etc.	___	___

Summary of Methods of Evaluating Students. A school that does not have an adequate program of evaluation does not know enough about

the teacher understands his interpretation of each item on the scale. Following the use of a rating scale, the evaluator must schedule a conference with the teacher in order to explain his reactions to the teaching situation that has been rated.

Rating scales are assembled in various forms. On the following pages, excerpts are presented from two rather common types of rating scales.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR MARKING AND USING SCALE [13]

Each item of the scale is scored on a basis of 10 points. These points are grouped under the headings of Excellent, Superior, Good, Fair, and

TEACHER RATING SCALE

Name_____   School_____

Score_____

	Excellent	Superior	Good	Fair	Poor
	9.00–10	7–8.99	4–6.99	2–3.99	1–1.99
A. The teacher					
1. *Personal characteristics*					
a. Physical vitality...............					
b. Emotional balance.............					
c. Voice........................					
d. Appearance...................					
2. Professional qualifications					
a. Command of English............					
b. Mastery of subject matter........					
c. Growth in training and service....					
3. Teacher techniques					
a. Room conditions................					
b. Democratic management.........					
B. Pupil reaction					
1. Cooperative attitude...............					
2. Reaction to guidance...............					
3. Social development................					
C. Class procedure					
1. Specific aim......................					
2. Planned procedure.................					
D. Community relationships					
1. Cooperation with patrons..........					
2. Moral and religious influence.......					

[13] College of Education, Butler University, Indianapolis, Ind., 1947.

The use of rating scales implies that it is possible to construct a definite yardstick with which to measure the effectiveness of a teacher. There are two important reasons why this cannot be done: (1) the human factors in the teaching situation are all variables, thus forming an impossible base upon which to establish a constant measure; (2) rating scales are composed of many items, and it would be impossible for a teacher to conduct himself in such a manner that they would all be applicable to him on any one day—if more than one day is used the evaluator merely adds variables to the rating situation.

Despite the fact that we do not have a yardstick with which to evaluate teachers, there are certain things that good teachers need to do. The supervisor and his teachers should construct check lists of these things that all teachers should do. When these lists have been constructed, the teacher can use them for self-evaluation or the supervisor can base his observations upon them. These lists will include many items, and, just as in the use of rating scales, no teacher will so conduct himself that the items all apply to him on any one day. One important difference between a rating scale and a check list is that a rating scale is so constructed that a composite score can be assigned to the teacher who has been rated, but it would be meaningless to attempt to develop a composite score on the basis of a check list evaluation. The check list arms the teacher with lists of techniques, materials, etc., which he and his colleagues have judged to be good. In all probability no one teacher will use all the suggestions on the lists, but each suggestion that he does use will have been judged good by his supervisor, fellow teachers, and himself. If a teacher is continually using better techniques, materials, etc., his teaching effectiveness should increase. Conversely, if a teacher is judged to be ineffective despite his use of good techniques, materials, etc., the supervisor can use the check list, in which he and the teacher have a personal interest, as a basis for an individual conference. The teacher's fear of receiving a low rating and, to a certain extent, of supervision are abolished when the check list technique is used.

Check lists can be very general or very specific. The following excerpt provides us with an example of a general type of check list:

Poor. The higher the score the greater is the excellency. The terms are defined as follows:

A rating of Excellent in any item is the highest possible score to be attained.

A rating of Superior in any item means that the characteristic or ability is above average.

A rating of Good in any item means that it is acceptable and satisfactory in every respect.

A rating of Fair in any item means that the characteristic or ability is below average and not entirely acceptable.

A rating of Poor in any item means that definite improvement must be shown before rehiring.

The teacher's composite rating is found by dividing the total points by the number of items checked.

An Excellent rating equals a 9.00 to 10.00 average.

A Superior rating equals a 7.00 to 8.99 average.

A Good rating equals a 4.0 to 6.99 average.

A Fair rating equals a 2.00 to 3.99 average.

A Poor rating equals a 1.00 to 1.99 average.

A variation in rating-scale construction is represented by the following example. In this example, as in the previous one, the rule to follow is, the higher the score the greater the excellency of the teacher.

<center>TEACHER RATING SCALE</center>

School_____ Teacher_____

Rating Official_____ Position_____

DIRECTIONS: Place number of most appropriate response in the space provided at the end of each question. Give 3 for "usually," 2 for "seldom," 1 for "never." When the blank has been completed add the numbers representing your responses and enter the sum in the space to the right of these directions. *Total score:*

1. Does he make effective use of audio-visual materials?........................ _____
2. Does he make provisions for individual differences?.......................... _____
3. Does he use democratic methods in his classroom?........................... _____
4. Does he maintain physical conditions in the classroom that are conducive to effective work?... _____
5. Does he have definite aims for each lesson?................................. _____
6. Does he seem able to motivate the students?................................ _____
7. Does he employ learning experiences that are adjusted to the level of the students?.. _____
8. Does he seem to have self-confidence in front of his class?................. _____
9. Does he treat all students impartially?.................................... _____
10. Does he profit by professional criticism of his work?....................... _____

The theory underlying the development of *Improvement Sheets for Instruction* is that teachers with like interests will come together and through a sharing of their experiences they will be able to construct these lists of specific aims, teacher and pupil activities, and materials of instruction in order to increase their teaching effectiveness. It is a function of the supervisor to stimulate groups of teachers to come together in order to help each other improve in the act of teaching. Undoubtedly a great amount of value is to be obtained from the group experiences which evolve during the construction of one of these sheets as well as from the experience of using it following its construction.

The *Check List for Planning and Appraising Supervision* developed by Ayer and Peckham was discussed in Chap. 4. Based upon ten principles for supervision, this list is dedicated to the attainment of six purposes, two of which are directly concerned with the evaluation process. On every hand there seems to be evidence that the check-list technique is probably the best single method of stimulating the teacher growth that should follow the analysis of teacher activity. When all methods of evaluation have been considered, the final evaluation of a teacher is still determined by the size of the interval that exists between the pupils and the objectives for education when the teacher has had his final contacts with the pupil.

USING THE RESULTS OF AN EVALUATION OF TEACHERS

The teaching effectiveness of most teachers is satisfactory to the degree that their services should be continued from year to year. This certainly does not mean that no improvement can be made or is to be expected in any particular case. Before improvement can be made, the teacher's strengths and weaknesses must be analyzed. When this analysis is complete, the teacher should know his status, the place from which he must start to grow. The immediate goal of evaluation is to determine status in order to have a sound basis upon which to plan for growth. Professional teachers will welcome this concept of evaluation.

The actual use of the results of evaluation appear in the plans for teacher growth. For example, following an evaluation of his teachers, a supervisor might recommend that all need group-action

SELF-ANALYSIS CHECK LIST FOR TEACHERS

School_____ Teacher's Name_____

Date_____

	Yes	No
1. Do I constantly try to improve my methods and procedures in teaching?		
2. Do I provide for individual differences in my daily program?		
3. Do I give each child the opportunity to express himself?		
4. Do I vary my pattern of dressing?		
5. Do I utilize audio-visual aids in my teaching?		
6. Do the pupils share in making the room an attractive school home?		
7. Do I treat my fellow teachers in a professional manner?		
8. Do I use the resources of the community in my teaching?		
9. Do I maintain an active file of bulletin board materials?		
10. Do I encourage the parents of my pupils to cooperate in planning learning experiences for their children?		

The general check lists serve to help the teacher orient himself to the profession. The specific type of check list should be designed to provide teachers with definite help toward improving their instruction in the area or department to which they are assigned. Franzen [14] has developed the check list technique extensively through the development of *Improvement Sheets for Instruction*. The following excerpt from the Improvement Sheet for Biology will serve to illustrate the specificness of this technique:

	Yes	No
A. Teacher Activities		
1. Do the assignments draw from the biological experiences of the pupils?		
2. Do the assignments have direct relationships to civic and personal problems?		
3. Does the teacher guide the pupils through reasoning to a solution of their own biological problems?		
4. Does the teacher encourage informal class discussion?		
5. Are the principles of biology shown to apply to everyday problems of life?		
6. Does the teacher stress the practical application of the class discussion?		
7. Is the class discussion in terms of biological language?		
8. Do the teacher's contributions offered during class discussions relate to subject?		
9. Does the teacher encourage pupils to question the validity of biological contributions as found in books, magazines, and papers?		

[14] C. G. F. Franzen, "An Improvement Sheet for Biology," *Improvement Sheets for Instruction*, p. 77, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind., 1949.

Chapter 6. SUPERINTENDENTS AND SUPERVISION

Achieving the objectives of education is the primary responsibility of all school personnel. Objectives[1] are achieved only when the behavior of boys and girls is so changed that the attitudes, competencies, interests, and understandings they exhibit are closely correlated with the objectives. America's venture in public education has become so immense that some of the responsibilities of the administrators have expanded to the point where they seem to overshadow the primary responsibility stated above. For this reason, the work of administrative personnel should be constantly evaluated in order to determine the points at which modifications should be made so that the administrators can make their maximum direct contribution to the achievement of the objectives.

The supervisors in any school system are responsible for maintaining harmonious relationships between the teachers and the administrators. Improving instruction often means changing methods of instruction. Changes must always be explained to the students, school community, school board, etc. It is little wonder that administrators beleaguered with a multitude of financial, building, personnel, and other types of problems often do not extend a ready welcome to change. However, the greater majority of administrators will not oppose change if they can be assured that it can be defended as good for the pupils and community, and financially and physically possible from the standpoint of the budget, school equipment, and school plant. It is a responsibility of the supervisor to evaluate carefully all aspects of proposed changes in the curriculum or in methods and techniques of instruction in order to be able to present them effectively to the administrator.

Design, maintenance, and construction of school buildings is a

[1] Objectives are fluid to the extent that they are always being raised. This condition is desirable because to achieve the objectives and not raise them would result in a type of educational stagnation.

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experience; teacher A attend a geography workshop at the state university; teacher B explore the possibilities of enriching reading experiences through use of the public library; teachers C and D integrate certain phases of their teaching; teacher E plan a travel experience for the first vacation period; etc. In other words, when the supervisor and his teachers plan experiences, based upon the results of evaluations, that will promote individual and group growth, they are properly using the results of an evaluation of the teachers.

SUMMARY

Teachers are required to evaluate their pupils, and supervisors are required to evaluate their teachers. The modern teacher and supervisor are developing programs through which it is possible to evaluate the whole pupil or the whole teacher. Objectively constructed tests are continuing as the principal evaluative technique in most schools, but the modern teacher in the modern school is also using individual pupil profiles, anecdotal records, check lists, conferences, etc., in order to complete his evaluation of the whole pupil. The modern supervisor is also using many of these techniques in order to evaluate his teachers adequately.

The immediate goal of all evaluation is to determine teacher or pupil status in order to have a sound basis upon which to plan experiences that will promote teacher or pupil growth. In a final analysis, the evaluation of a teacher or a pupil is determined by the size of the interval that exists between the pupil and the objectives for education when the teacher has had his final contacts with the pupil.

make its maximum contribution toward preparing pupils to live together democratically, all aspects of human relationships within the total school organization must be democratically conceived.

SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS

Based on the primary geographical divisions of the various states, the chief administrative school officials are the state, county, and city or district superintendents. In the United States, public education is basically a responsibility of each state. Therefore, when we consider the importance of the position public education holds in our national life, we automatically think that superintendents of schools should be highly qualified professional individuals. The fact that this is not universally true in our country is a condemnation of circumstances surrounding the positions and not of the persons who hold them.

With these general statements as background, let us turn to an examination of the factors within the broad category of responsibilities assigned to each type of superintendent associated with the supervisory process. In order to do this effectively, it will be necessary to consider trends in the methods of selecting superintendents and changes in the qualifications required for the office by the state, county, or city unit.

STATE SUPERINTENDENTS

Historically, the office of state superintendent developed as local state school districts became accountable to the state. Martz and Smith briefly describe this development in the following manner: [2]

In 1812, New York led the way in the creation of a State Superintendent of Common Schools. Other states followed in the next fifty years. In some instances, a state officer, such as the auditor or the secretary of state, was given, ex officio, the duties of state superintendent. A few states created a state board of education with a secretary as its executive and administrative officer. The two outstanding figures in the movement for improved schools during this period were secretaries of such state boards. They were Horace Mann of Massachusetts, and Henry Barnard of Connecticut.

[2] V. Martz and H. L. Smith, *An Introduction to Education*, pp. 115-116, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1941.

continuous and pressing task for administrators in all school districts. Each pupil develops as a total organism; therefore, it is important for the supervisor to cooperate with the administrator in the estimation of space needs, examination of paint textures and colors, selection of school equipment, study of room design, building location, and selection of learning materials in order to free the administrator from some of the responsibilities that prevent him from having direct contact with teachers and pupils. Unquestionably the most efficient and economic way for an administrator to learn of and use the power that is inherent in the thinking of his teachers, individually and as a group, is to study cooperatively the needs and plans of the school district with the supervisors.

BASIS OF ADMINISTRATOR–SUPERVISOR RELATIONSHIPS

In a democratic country all human relationships should be democratically conceived. This principle is unalterably true in the relationships of all persons who serve the people in our tax-supported institutions of which the school is one. Democracy implies, among other things, mutual respect for personality. The administrator who is dictatorial toward, or holds himself aloof from, his supervisors and teachers is certainly not going to respect their personalities unless it is momentarily convenient for him to do so. The antithesis of respect is contempt which is often characterized by the use of sarcasm, ridicule, denunciation, etc. Administrators who do not respect their supervisors and teachers will treat them contemptuously by installing agreeable, opportunistic favorites in places of authority and leadership resulting eventually in the creation of a teacher majority who are frustrated and unhappy. Conditions such as this are undemocratic and no part of the school, school organization, or school community will prosper as long as they exist.

Respect is always a two-way proposition. Supervisors and teachers must also respect the administrators. When the respect for personality between administrators and supervisors is mutual, vigorous disagreements and presentations of opposing viewpoints can be openly considered for merging or arbitration depending upon which solution promotes the advancement of the majority. Democratic relationships between supervisors, teachers, and administrators breed democratic relationships between pupils and teachers. If a school is to

can offer little direct supervision, but a qualified, energetic super-intendent can find many possibilities for indirect supervision. For example, he can visit and speak to professional educational organizations at the local and state levels; he can confer, counsel, and cooperate with county and city superintendents; he can promote state-wide in-service training programs for teachers and administrators.

A competent state superintendent will be able to employ the group process to great advantage. Actually it will be his task to cause local leaders to organize their localities for study and work for the purpose of adapting state-developed policies and materials to the needs of their respective localities. In all states it is necessary to have working groups at the local level and at the state level; only in this way can the needs of both the locality and the state be served. A healthy group at either level should possess the following qualities: [4]

1. It has a feeling of control over its own destiny—it is not dominated by out-group members nor subject to arbitrary control.

2. It is a group accepting each member as a person—it may not approve of what an individual does, but it does not reject him, only his behavior.

3. It has a feeling of common purpose. It knows where it is, where it wants to go, and why it is together.

4. It gives its members a sense of progress and satisfaction.

Like all persons with supervisory responsibilities, the state super-intendent must be capable directly and indirectly to provide helpful guidance and evaluation for the educational personnel of the state. To be able to stimulate groups that have the characteristics of healthy groups, and helpfully to direct and evaluate state-wide educational problems requires that an experienced, well-trained person occupy the state superintendency. A glance at the opening statements in this section will indicate that present practices do little to ensure that such a person will be selected. Occasionally a very well qualified person will be selected for the state superintendency in spite of poor selective policies. However, our stake in public education is too high, and our resources of human beings too valuable, to permit us the doubtful luxury of gambling on our selection of the person for this position. We must do everything possible to alter present prac-

[4] H. H. Cummings (ed.), *Improving Human Relations*, p. 42, National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin 25, Washington, D.C., 1949.

It has been unfortunate that the early prevalent method of filling this office was by popular election. This method threw the candidacy for the office into politics and required, among other things, that a candidate be a resident of the state in which he was seeking office. Educators in general have condemned this procedure of filling the office of state superintendent and have recommended that the position be coupled with an attractive salary and filled by appointment. This appointment policy has been used successfully in the selection of superintendents for cities and large school districts. The chief obstacle to switching from popular election to appointment is that many state constitutions require that the office be filled by popular election, and to change the procedure it would be necessary to amend the various constitutions, a difficult process at best. However, there appears to be a trend toward granting state boards of education the power to fill the office of state superintendent by appointment. In addition, a majority of the states now provide the superintendent with an indefinite term of office or a term of four years or longer. Only thirteen states provide terms of less than four years, and in nine of these states the superintendent is elected by popular vote.

A great amount of variation exists in the educational qualifications prescribed for state superintendents, ranging from no specific legal provisions in this respect to the holding of a master's degree. Requirements for experience in education range from little or no specific experience to Kansas' requirement of ten years in teaching, or administration (five of which must have been in Kansas).[3]

The original duties of the state superintendent were primarily clerical. Through the enactment of legislation his duties have been expanded, and a great amount of power is now centralized in the office of the state superintendent. At the present time the many duties of this official can be classified as administrative, supervisory, advisory, or statistical. It would be interesting to analyze these various categories of duties, but the limitations of our text require that we primarily consider the supervisory classification.

Supervisory Duties of the State Superintendent. In most states the superintendent is delegated the responsibility for general supervision of the schools of the state. In actual practice the state superintendent

[3] Adapted from *The Forty-eight State School Systems*, p. 42, The Council of State Governments, Chicago, 1949.

years actual classroom teaching and five years in administrative and supervisory positions.

"It is generally recognized that the trained teacher will acquire valuable additional knowledge through actual teaching experiences and through educational and community leadership, and that wisdom and understanding may be attained as he gains experience in successful work and in purposeful observation and study." [6]

6. A minimum age of thirty-five years.

7. Three years experience in graduate study. It is not recommended that the advanced educational qualifications be stated in terms of higher degrees. It is recommended that they be stated in terms of types of graduate study, and if it is possible to obtain an advanced degree at the same time so much the better.

An example of the type of graduate study to be recommended is suggested by Graves [7] who reports an attempt during the Stanford University Summer Session to answer the following questions:

1. Where will the beginning administrator learn the dynamics of group relations?

2. Can the processes of group thinking and group action be learned in the training school?

To study these questions, the members of the course were divided into committees to discuss major problems of school administration. One committee of "observers" reporting on the development of the democratic group process produced the following characteristics of three types of leadership—autocratic, laissez-faire, and democratic:

AUTOCRATIC (LEADERSHIP)

1. The leader uses his personality or pleasant mannerisms to win over group.

2. The leader has a definite idea as to what he wishes done and how he wants it done.

3. There are no group goals—only those of the leader.

4. There is no recognition of special abilities or skills of the members of committee.

[6] J. R. McLure, "Selecting the State Superintendent and the State Board of Education," *University of Alabama Bulletin,* New Series, Vol. 43, No. 7, p. 4, June, 1949.

[7] A. D. Graves, "Group Processes in Training Administrators," *The Phi Delta Kappan,* Vol. 31, No. 9, p. 448, May, 1950.

tices in such a manner that we will be assured of the selection of a competent person for this position.

Filling the Office of State Superintendent. What should be the method of filling the position of state superintendent? Assuming that the state board of education represents the educational will of the people, the state superintendent should be appointed by this board. The board should have the authority to establish the superintendent's salary and term of office, including the authority to reappoint him as long as his leadership is deemed to be effective.

The state superintendent as the professional educational leader for the state must be appointed for a term of sufficient duration to offer him ample opportunity to develop an effective program of education. Evaluation of the program should be made by the state board of education in conjunction with representatives from district and city school boards throughout the state. It must be remembered that the first purpose of this evaluation is to help the superintendent become a more effective leader, not to mobilize a body of negative criticism in order to "fire" him. The state board must realize that changes should not be made for transient reasons and that growth is a continuous process. With these realizations firmly fixed in their minds, the board will be in a less biased position to evaluate how effectively the appointed superintendent is serving the public educational interests.

Personal and Professional Qualifications for State Superintendents. What should be the personal and professional qualifications of the state superintendent?[5] In the preceding chapters the personal and professional qualifications of teachers and supervisors have been discussed. The state superintendent should possess all the qualities of a successful teacher and supervisor. In addition, and duplicating the previously stated qualifications to some extent, he should possess:

1. High moral character.
2. A record of good citizenship.
3. Demonstrated capacity for outstanding educational leadership.
4. A record of significant educational achievements.
5. Minimum experience, prescribed by law, of ten years including five

[5] In answering this question some of the material has been adapted from J. R. McLure, "Selecting the State Superintendent and the State Board of Education," *University of Alabama Bulletin*, New Series, Vol. 43, No. 7, pp. 5–9, June, 1949.

4. The leader draws as many as possible into discussions.

5. The leader is willing to accept group opinion.

GROUP REACTION (TO LEADERSHIP)

1. The group elects its leader and trusts him to help lead it toward its goals.

2. The group is dissatisfied with the floundering and waste of time at first meetings but later realizes that the democratic processes are slow to get started.

3. The group moves forward toward goals. The group recognizes problems and volunteers for work to be done.

4. All members participate.

5. The total group is open-minded to all sides of any question and the minority group is willing to accept the opinion of the majority.

POSSIBLE SOLUTION: The group can reorganize with the same leader or elect another leader. The original leader becomes an active member of the group.

It is significant that a group of summer-session students interested in school administration have been able, in a training-school situation, to identify the characteristics of these three types of group leaders plus the reactions of the group to them. It is equally significant to notice that only under democratic leadership is the group capable of reorganizing without violating the respect it should have for the personality of the leader. All persons responsible for group leadership would be wise to evaluate their group organization with the preceding lists as the criterion.

At the state level or local level it is important that individuals brought together as groups have the opportunity to experience the satisfactions that come from democratic human relationships. Administrators and supervisors must become increasingly aware of the power of group thinking and collective action; as a result of experiencing this power, they will be better able to stimulate their teachers to employ the same method in their classrooms. If students daily use the democratic methods of life in their classrooms, they should emerge from the secondary schools better equipped to fulfill their responsibilities as citizens.

It should be stated again that the state superintendent will not have the time directly to supervise the educational process as it is applied to youth and adults. However, the alert state superintendent will find the possibilities for indirect supervision to be tremendous.

GROUP REACTION (TO LEADERSHIP)

1. The group is blinded to his dominance and is easily handled.

2. Members of the group may object as individuals, but since they have a divided front, none of their ideas are acceptable, and leader's ideas are accepted.

3. There is no atmosphere that is conducive to full group participation or interaction.

4. The best possible contributions are not made because the subjects assigned to individuals are not necessarily of interest to them.

POSSIBLE SOLUTION: The group may become so rebellious as to demand new leadership.

LAISSEZ-FAIRE (LEADERSHIP)

1. The laissez-faire type of leader is often the result of too hasty action on the part of the group to appoint a leader.

2. The leader is submissive to any suggestion of the group.

3. The leader directs all remarks to the majority because of fear or lack of interest.

4. Because of lack of summary statements, too many items that have no connection with major problems to be solved may be discussed.

5. The leader wastes time.

GROUP REACTION (TO LEADERSHIP)

1. Many members of the group are busy with other interests. They would rather shirk their responsibilities as members of a group because of a "limited amount of time."

2. The group becomes disorganized.

3. Minority opinion is not heard.

4. The group flounders without any direction. It is usually off on a tangent rather than on a major issue and seizes on any idea in order to get a job done.

5. Many additional hours are needed to complete a job.

POSSIBLE SOLUTION: The group becomes aware of the lack of leadership and as a result it turns to a more active member of the group for leadership and the original leader becomes a leader in name only.

DEMOCRATIC (LEADERSHIP)

1. The leader is elected by the group and works with the group.

2. The leader is impatient at first with the slowness of action, but later realizes that patience pays off.

3. Growth on the part of the leader takes place as he gains in experience.

Duties of the County Superintendent. The general public sometimes mitigates the importance of the position of the county superintendent. A brief consideration of typical duties performed by the county superintendent will serve to illustrate the importance of the position. For example, the county superintendent

1. Is responsible for the supervision of the schools in the county.
2. Is the dispenser of much of the school money for the county.
3. Is an interpreter of the state school laws (is the final authority in controversies of a local nature).
4. Is a key individual in the movement toward the consolidation of small school districts.
5. Is responsible for personally visiting and inspecting the schools.
6. Is the medium between the state superintendent and subordinate school officers and the schools.
7. Is responsible for delegating various powers and duties to the principals in the county and for holding the principals responsible for the performance of these duties.
8. Is responsible for holding county teacher institutes and initiating other types of in-service training programs.
9. Is responsible for seeing that all teachers are properly licensed or certificated in the subjects or grades they are required to teach.
10. Is responsible for at least reviewing the routing of school buses.
11. Is the presiding officer at the county board of education.
12. Is responsible for making provision for the examination of all applicants for graduation in the common school branches.
13. Is considered to be the direct representative of the state department of education in his county.

The duties of the county superintendent vary from state to state but in general they can be classified as "business, clerical, and professional." The items on the partial list of duties of county superintendents presented above can all be classified under one of these three headings. Frequently we find county situations in which the superintendent spends the greater portion of his time with the business and clerical duties. A professional educational leader is grossly wasting his time when he permits this situation to exist. Business and clerical operations are important, they must be well done, but they are time-consuming, and in a final analysis it is possible for almost any citizen of average training and ability to perform opera-

COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS

The office of county superintendent began to develop about the middle of the nineteenth century. At first the affairs of this office were administered by some other county official, and since the duties were chiefly clerical, this arrangement was not completely unsatisfactory. Toward the latter part of the nineteenth century the office was quite common and it was filled through the election process by men who usually claimed to have a professional interest in education. Most educators agree that this office, like the state superintendency, could be more adequately filled by appointment.

As a local superintendent of schools, the county superintendent, unlike the state superintendent, is in a position to exercise a great amount of direct influence upon the educational process. However, many promising educators refuse to consider county superintendencies as career positions because the pay is low, standards are low, and popular election is the usual method of securing the position. De Young [8] states the case in the following manner:

Nearly all the 3,000 counties in the United States have a chief educational officer, usually designated as the county superintendent of schools. . . . The legal eligibility requirements in most states are low. Unfortunately most counties in the United States, instead of appointing their superintendents or commissioners from the best candidates available, elect them on a partisan ticket.

It is impossible to be assured that vigorous, well-qualified, and professionally-minded educators will occupy county superintendencies as long as the position is secured through popular election. The counties can learn an excellent lesson from the "cities" in regard to this problem. Almost all city superintendents are appointed by the local school board and they serve this board as its chief educational officer. The city superintendency is the best paid position in public-school work and is considered by many educators to be the most difficult. City superintendents, contrasted to county superintendents, are in an excellent position actually to become educational leaders. This is basically due to the fact that they are appointed to their positions, and with even moderate success, they are usually able to retain them for a long period of time.

[8] C. A. De Young, *Introduction to American Public Education*, p. 402, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1950.

Duties of the City Superintendent. As an employee of the city school board, the city superintendent's main function is to serve as the chief administrative officer of the board of education. The board, in most cases, retains the right to prescribe the duties of the superintendent, but if it limits him excessively, the superintendent is powerless. There is nothing to gain by handicapping the superintendent with excessive limitations because the board that gives him privileges and duties can also take them away. The city superintendent has more authority and more duties than any other single teacher in the city but he has this authority and these duties only because the board has granted them to him. To illustrate, consider the following section of Article 21 of the *School Laws of Pennsylvania:* [11]

The board of public education in each school district of the first class shall, whenever a vacancy in said office shall occur, appoint a district superintendent, who shall be designated and known as superintendent of schools. . . . The board shall prescribe the terms and duties and fix the salaries of each of such employees. They [including a superintendent of buildings and a superintendent of supplies] shall be responsible to the board for the conduct of their respective departments, shall make annual reports to the board, and shall from time to time submit such plans and suggestions for the improvement of the schools and the school system as they shall deem expedient or as the board of public education may require.

It seems obvious that as far as the board is concerned the chief difference between the superintendent and other teachers is in the degree of authority conferred upon the employee. The easiest method of ascertaining the amount of authority usually granted to city superintendents is to consider the types of duties that are delegated to them. The following list is typical of the duties usually assigned to the city superintendent:

1. To serve as the chief executive and administrative officer of the board of education.

2. To determine the adequacy of the school plant for school and community needs and to make recommendations to the board concerning such adequacy.

3. To recommend, as needed, principals, supervisors, teachers, librarians, clerks, custodians, etc.

[11] *School Laws of Pennsylvania,* Article 21, Section 2101, pp. 219–220, Bulletin 2, Harrisburg, Pa., 1919.

tions of this type. Twenty-three years ago Cubberley [9] adequately stated the case this way:

> Yet, from the point of view of school supervision, a county superintendent of schools, no less than a city superintendent of schools, must find his way downward through the complicated machinery of his office to the teacher and the child for whom the schools exist. Unless he can accomplish this he is an office clerk rather than a school superintendent . . . an overseer rather than a professional leader.

Qualifications for County Superintendents. The personal and professional qualifications for the position of county superintendent should probably not be less than those for a state superintendent. If any modification is permitted, it should be in the amount of administrative and supervisory experience required. The situation in regard to county superintendencies is improving, and today, in many states, we find that the county board of education selects the superintendent from a list of adequately qualified people. It is also significant that in some states the counties have been divided into supervisory districts in an attempt to provide the schools with closer supervision.

CITY SUPERINTENDENTS [10]

At one time in the development of our system of public education, each individual school was under separate authority. This condition all but negated the possibility of adequately administering and supervising the schools in our urban centers. During the first half of the nineteenth century these centers anticipated the advantage of some form of central school administration. Several urban centers experimented with various types of individuals in a position akin to that of the city superintendent of today. Finally in 1839, Providence, Rhode Island, employed a full-time professional city superintendent.

A great amount of the strength in our city schools of today may be attributed to the fact that city school boards have been free to use the whole country as a market in order to select the right educational leader for their city. City school boards have also been able to establish a salary for the city superintendent that is commensurate with his worth.

[9] E. P. Cubberley, *State School Administration*, pp. 212-213, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1927.
[10] In the following discussion the position of city and district superintendents will be considered as synonymous.

Qualifications for City Superintendents. The qualifications for this position are very similar to the qualifications for the state and county superintendents. It is interesting to note that accrediting associations are prone to specify that the superintendent or principal directly in charge of the supervision and administration of the high school shall hold a master's degree. For example, in the case of The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools the requirement states the following: [12]

The principal [or the administrative head of the secondary school] has had at least two years of teaching experience and possesses as a minimum a Master's Degree from an institution of higher education qualified to offer graduate work. His preparation in school administration and supervision includes an appropriate distribution of graduate work covering those phases of the school administrator's work which are professional in character, such as secondary school administration, curriculum making, the supervision of instruction, methods of teaching, philosophy of education, history of education, pupil activities, guidance, health, and safety, vocational education, personnel records and reports, and school finance. Anyone who holds the title of principal meets the foregoing requirements. [Regulation 4B of The North Central Association makes it mandatory for the superintendent to possess all the qualifications set forth in the preceding quotation.]

The fact that city superintendents and principals are required to hold an advanced degree should be sufficient challenge to all training institutions to evaluate the usability of the work they are offering at the graduate level for potential school administrators. In other words, the mere holding of a master's degree does not ensure that the potential administrator has had the types of learning experiences which will make him more competent to administer democratically and supervise an educational plant and program.

SUPERINTENDENTS AND SUPERVISORS

As the chief administrative officer of the school district, state or local level, the superintendent seldom has an opportunity to supervise directly the instructional phase of the educational process. Since

[12] *Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools,* pp. 10-11, The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Regulation 4A.

4. To accept the responsibility for effective instruction and pupil growth.

5. To study, or cause to be studied, the qualities of the teaching staff.

6. To recommend new policies to the board and act as an advisor to the board as it determines all its policies.

7. To recommend the discharge of all persons whose services are unsatisfactory.

8. To delegate various phases of his supervisory function to those persons most competent to carry them out.

9. To obtain, according to law, all necessary instructional supplies and equipment.

10. To cause an effective program of supervision to be instituted for all elementary and high schools, for all special schools, and all phases of the curriculum.

11. To accept and discharge the responsibility of interpreting the schools to the public.

12. To register and keep a complete record of the kind and grade of each license held by each regular school employee.

13. To establish regulations for the use of the school facilities by community groups.

14. To prepare, or cause to be prepared, a school budget showing in detail the amount of money necessary to meet the estimated school needs and to submit the budget to the board.

15. To accept the responsibility for granting working permits according to the legal restrictions.

16. To make monthly reports to the board on the condition and needs of the school.

17. To accept and execute the responsibility of approving all expenditures within the limits of the detailed budget that has been approved by the board.

18. To determine the boundaries of attendance districts and to establish, with the approval of the board, an adequate system for determining the reasons for nonattendance at school.

19. To promote programs of in-service training for the teachers of the school district.

20. To cause each subject-matter division or area to prepare for the master file an outline copy of the material to be treated in the division or area.

These individual items are broad in scope, but as they are studied, the nature and magnitude of the job of city superintendent will become evident.

Division of Vocational Rehabilitation. (Division consists of a State Director, Assistant State Director, Medical Consultant, Medical Social Worker, Deaf and Hard of Hearing Specialists, Counselors, a supervisor and such other staff as are necessary. Serving persons sixteen years of age or older with vocational handicaps.)

Division of Attendance. (The State Attendance Officer is responsible for general supervision over the attendance officers of the state.)

Department of Public Health cooperating with the Department of Education. (These departments jointly appoint a Director of Health and Physical Education. Among other duties this individual visits schools and aids in instituting a modern program.)

Cooperative Service with Indiana State Library. Division of the School Lunch Program. (One duty of this division is the "supervision and administration" of the operation of the school lunch program in participating schools.)

This organization is not atypical of that found in many states. The presentation of the detail of this organization is to support the viewpoint that educational supervision involves more than the direct contacts between a teacher and supervisor in a learning situation. All the *divisions* presented above have some responsibility for supervision, and the discharge of this responsibility directly or indirectly affects the teaching process in the classrooms about the state. The state superintendent is a powerful figure in the appointment of the supervisors in the various divisions and through his influence upon them the extent of his indirect influence upon classroom teaching is increased.

In many states the titles assigned to the assistants of the state superintendent are different from those presented in the preceding example. The organization in Pennsylvania includes such titles as deputy superintendent; director, bureau of instruction; chief, elementary education; etc. Regardless of the title assigned to the positions, the persons who hold them are all educational workers with an assigned responsibility to maintain and improve the quality of, the educational process at the state and local levels.

The superintendents in many counties and cities are surrounded with organizations that are patterned on a small scale after the state organization. For this reason the organization at the county and city level will be discussed only as it is needed to explain certain phases of the Supervisor and Principal Relationship in the following chapter.

the superintendent is technically responsible for this phase of supervision, it is necessary for him to assign the responsibility to other individuals. At the local level the superintendent usually assigns the responsibility to the principals who in turn delegate it to supervisors for special areas or to departmental chairmen or heads. The relationship at this level is very close; all persons involved are in daily contact.[13]

In the large cities, counties, and at the state level, the relationship between the superintendent and those directly responsible for instructional supervision is more remote. For example, at the state level the executive functions of the state superintendent's office might be delegated to the following divisions: [14]

Division of Administration. (Charged with the administration of the system of public instruction and general superintendence of the business relating to the common schools.)

Division of School Relief. (Determining methods and policies of administering state relief and recommending same to board. Supervising the administration of state relief expenditures.)

Division of School Inspection. (Visit and inspect all elementary and high schools and advise with them "for the purpose of improving and standardizing the work for these schools and for the purpose of coordinating the work of the teachers and others charged with the responsibilities of these schools. . . .")

Division of Teacher Training and Licensing. (Examine all applications for licenses and requests for temporary certificates, etc. Inspecting colleges and universities offering work in teacher education. Recommending and licensing all critic teachers in teacher education institutions in Indiana.)

Division of Vocational Education. (Division consists of a director, a state supervisor of each component field and staff assistant supervisors as are necessary. The director, who is appointed by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, allocates funds, coordinates all phases of the program, outlines policies, and holds at "least one annual conference of all supervisors and teacher-trainers in each respective field and plans the year's program.")

[13] This relationship is so important that it is considered separately in the following chapter, Supervisor and Principal Relationships.

[14] *The Administrative Handbook for the Schools of Indiana*, pp. 13–28, State of Indiana Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin 200, 1948.

tribute to classroom teaching. He can accept the challenge of this opportunity by offering a suggestion that has worked in a similar situation, by building the teacher's security with the administrator during the experimental period, by working with the teacher during the experimental period, by demonstrating that supervision is a helping rather than a rating process.

During the school year and especially during the summer sessions, most state universities sponsor workshops for *rural health education, vocational education, art education,* etc. The state supervisors can serve very effectively as *consultants to these workshops which are usually planned for teachers and administrators.*

4. The supervisor can advance the program by evaluating the work of the teachers in the state. For example, if the supervisor has collected a number of techniques, methods, and experiences into a resource book, and if the resource book has been used by the teachers of the state for one year or more, the supervisor could address a letter to the teachers requesting the following information:

   a. In what ways have you found the resource book to be helpful?

   b. What types of problems have you encountered while using the book, and how have you solved them?

   c. What has been the reaction of your school community to the use of this book?

   d. Do you need more supervision in order to use this book effectively?

When the responses to these questions have all been assembled, they should be edited and duplicated for distribution to the teachers. The answers to the first two questions should add to the helpfulness of the book and could well furnish the basis for revising it. The answers to the last two questions will indicate the effectiveness of the public relations program and the status of the amount of supervision that has been offered.

SUMMARY

State control over education has increased with state support for education. This control is, to a large extent, exercised and directed by the chief state school officer. This official has such a multitude of responsibilities that it is necessary for him to be surrounded by a host of other educators who are assigned administrative and supervisory responsibilities for various divisions of the total school program. Through his influence upon these persons to whom he has caused responsibility to be delegated, the chief state school officer

SUPERVISORS AT WORK

Trained supervisors at the state level are in a very advantageous position to make special types of contributions to the teachers of the state. When we recall that each pupil develops as a totality and this development is conditioned to some extent by all environmental factors, we realize that educational supervision involves much more than the supervisor-teacher relations with the teaching process. Therefore, when we think of the contributions made to the learning situation by the trained supervisor at the state level, we must think, for example, of the supervision of the attendance or lunch program as well as the supervision of the teaching process.

Intermittently throughout this text, check lists and items pertaining to the supervision of aspects of the educational process indirectly associated with the actual learning situation have been introduced. The importance of these items should not be forgotten, but our emphasis must always be on distinct contributions the supervisor can make to the teaching process. At the state level the distinct contributions that can be made to the teaching process are the following:

1. The supervisor is in an objective position to emphasize the importance of the group process and to take a leading role in group meetings. State supervisors are unhindered by local restrictions, and if they are adequately trained, they can lead schools with finely segmented programs toward subject matter or area regroupings that will make the school educational experiences more meaningful for the pupils. In his work with the individual schools or school districts, it is very significant to remember that the state supervisor has the support of the state department.

2. The supervisor is in a position to mobilize the curriculum wealth of the state. In his work with all schools, large and small, rural and urban, the supervisor is the only person who can compare problem areas in various parts of the state from the standpoint of analyzing the origin of the problem and solutions that have been effective with similar problems. Creative supervisors will collect samples of curriculum experiences and teaching techniques from all parts of the state for grouping, duplication, and distribution to all teachers. This would be an excellent method of assembling a resource book for all teachers in the state.

3. The supervisor can help implement the introduction of new techniques. This is perhaps the supervisor's most direct opportunity to con-

Chapter 7. SUPERVISOR AND PRINCIPAL RELATIONSHIPS

The school administrative official who is most familiar to pupils, parents, and other community members is the principal. Many communities look upon the principal as their educational leader. In many instances this conception of the principal would not bear close scrutiny because he is merely an administrative director whose entire pattern of conduct is subject to review by the superintendent. Principals often point to the limitations placed upon them by the superintendent as the reasons for their failure to stimulate the modernization of the school's program. It is of course true that many schools operate in a restricted environment that tends to deaden their desire to improve. It is also true that many improvements in internal organization and administration can be made within the limitations imposed by the restrictions. The need is largely for clarification of the nature of the restrictions and initiative on the part of the principal who must work for and secure community approval of the school's program.

The administrative dilemma that forces many school systems to remain rooted in traditionalism is illustrated in the following paragraphs by Stiles: [1]

The reason why no satisfactory high school has ever been developed is to be found in an administrative system that stymies effective leadership and at the same time fails to provide an adequate driving force. That, if you stop to think about it, is a remarkable situation.

A high school's head is the principal. He is allowed some latitude in the administration of his school, yet he is in fact more a "principal" teacher than he is a leader, and his whole conduct is subject to review and check by the superintendent. The superintendent, in turn, may be allowed some room to move around in by his superiors, but he is responsible to the school board or committee, which may completely control

[1] D. Stiles, *High Schools for Tomorrow*, pp. 16–17, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1946.

exercises a great amount of indirect influence upon the complete program of educational supervision.

Some educators are fearful of placing too much authority in the hands of the chief state school officer. These persons claim that in a democracy it is of paramount importance to maintain local control of the schools. Public education has become such a tremendous undertaking that it would be impossible to offer each boy and girl an equal educational opportunity if educational control and support were allocated to subdivisions in each state.

In many states and counties the chief school officer gains his office by election on a partisan ticket. The trend is away from this practice and toward the practice, employed in most cities, of appointing the superintendent. Educators, in general, agree that the state and county offices will attract more capable personnel when this trend has become a universal actuality.

Educational supervision covers all phases of the school program. Each pupil develops as a totality, and this development is conditioned to some extent by all environmental factors. Therefore, when we think of the effect of supervision upon the learning situation, we must think, for example, of the supervision of the lunch program as well as the supervision of the teaching process.

city policies. The schools in this city are not prospering and to correct certain situations Mr. D has requested the board to make certain alterations in their policies; these alterations are the same as those requested by Mr. A, B, and C. The board refuses to make any alterations and the superintendent is in trouble.

In the preceding example the dilemma in which the superintendent finds himself is of his own creation. Nevertheless, despite the restrictions that are imposed upon him he should be able to make some improvements if he has the support of his principals and if they understand what he expects of them. If the principals do not understand the educational philosophy of the superintendent, the school city program may encounter just as much difficulty as it encounters when the school board does not understand. For example, just about two years ago a prominent superintendent, working very closely with his school board, began to direct some major changes in the total school city program. The implementation of the program was handicapped because the principals in the system were not ready for the drastic changes that were being proposed. Eventually the superintendent tried to force his program upon the principals with the result that they became united in their opposition to it. At this juncture the superintendent realized that he had made two serious mistakes: (1) he had forgotten that readiness for change must be achieved before change can take place normally; (2) when he tried to force the administrators, he laid aside the most important tool in his possession, respect for the personalities of his administrators.

The conditions described by Stiles can exist, but probably do not exist to an extreme degree, in the majority of the city superintendencies in the nation. In a democracy there will probably always be at least minority groups in opposition to the superintendent and his principals. Occasionally minority groups are very vociferous, and the importance of their claims may be interpreted by those who do not know the situation to be more important than they really are. Wise administrators will insist that the minorities be heard, and if their claims are unjustified, they will not reject the minority group members, they will only reject their claims.

A modern school system will build all its human relations on a basis of mutual respect of personality. Leadership is a function of administration and supervision but leadership does not mean domination. Many school cities have gone through a period of adminis-

him. The board, in its turn, is responsible to the community, which means that the people who have the final decision on what any school is to be or do are the voters.

The theory is all right but the practice often leads up a blind alley. The average taxpayer seldom intrudes himself into the educational world unless he sees something in the local school system he thinks is wrong. He regards education as a specialized field and is content to let the superintendent run the show. This passes the responsibility back to the superintendent. No superintendent, however, is naive enough to suppose that gives him a free hand. On the contrary, he knows all too well that the public apathy which seems to greet his labors is only skin deep, that the moment he gets out of the groove he will hear from the citizenry. Since public uproar may cost him his job, the average superintendent soon falls into the habit of keeping his head low and cultivating the school board. If he is bursting with educational ideas, and many are, he contents himself with writing articles for professional magazines and letting somebody else try them out . . .

The statement has repeatedly been made that the school board should represent the educational will of the people. City school superintendents are appointed by school boards, and if the superintendent and the board understand each other's educational philosophy before the superintendent is appointed, there is little reason for the condition described by Stiles to develop. Educators want to believe that such conditions are the exception rather than the rule, but quite frequently situations are encountered that raise serious doubts in the minds of the most optimistic educators. For example, a short time ago one of our nation's major cities needed a replacement for a superintendent who had resigned. The school board selected the man, let us call him Mr. A, they wanted as the replacement and offered him a very attractive salary to take the position. Mr. A met with the school board and discussed alterations that must be made in the general policy of the school city before he would consider the position. The school board declined to make the alterations and proceeded to interview two more prominent educators, Mr. B and Mr. C. To the dismay of the school board Mr. B and C both demanded the same alterations that had been demanded by Mr. A. The school board finally appointed Mr. D as superintendent at half the salary they had offered Mr. A, B, and C. Mr. D was very happy to secure the position and requested no alterations in school

Seeing that these regulations and policies are carried out is the responsibility of the principal and the assistant principal. To insure that this is done within the curriculum, a department head is appointed for each department. These heads, in meeting with their respective departments and then with the principal, act as the medium to see that desires are understood and carried out on the part of faculty and administration alike.

Problems of guidance are handled in weekly meetings that the principal holds with the six counsellors. Teachers and students, through School Council, have a chance to submit problems to the counsellors for consideration. At various times these counsellors meet with the heads of departments and representatives of School Council to discuss current issues.

In order that faculty members may have a greater role in school planning each faculty member, after indicating particular lines of interest, is appointed by the principal to one or more of the following committees: Improvement of Instruction; Rules and Regulations, Assembly, Special Drives, Extra-Curricular, Social Committee. It is the responsibility of each committee to elect its own chairman and determine a meeting time.

Acting as the steering gear for this committee organization is the advisory council. This council meets the first Monday of each month and its members include the principal, the assistant principal, the department heads, a counsellor representative and committee chairman. The purpose of this council is to hear and make decisions on the recommendations of committee chairmen. These decisions are then brought to the attention of the entire faculty at the meeting held the second Monday of each month. Whenever possible students are asked to assist on various committees. All faculty members and students are free to submit problems or recommendations to these committees.

Such a committee program has led not only to greater participation in school administration by faculty and students, but to a better understanding and appreciation of it.

There are several items in the preceding statement that deserve special attention. First, the principal and assistant principal assisted by department heads are responsible for seeing that the regulations and policies of the school board and superintendent are carried out. If the principal and his assistants considered this, as many do, to be their sole responsibility it would be reasonably safe to assume that the principal and his assistants were deep in the mire of backwardness. The bright fact is that this principal considers his position to carry some added challenges and responsibilities. Second, each faculty

trative dominance that has caused administrators to neglect the personalities of staff members. For example, the Lynds [2] make the following statement about Middletown's school administrators:

Middletown's school system, in step with those of other cities, has been becoming thoroughly "modernized" and "efficient" in its administrative techniques—to the dismay of some of the city's able teachers as they have watched the administrative horse gallop off with the educational cart. Some teachers regard it as characteristic of the trend toward administrative dominance that in one recent year eight administrators and no teachers had their expenses paid to the National Education Association convention.

IMPROVING ADMINISTRATOR-SUPERVISOR-TEACHER RELATIONS

The preceding discussion has re-emphasized the importance of realizing that the relationships between persons in the public-school system must be built upon mutual respect for personality. If the principal and supervisors are just the executors of the will of a superintendent who is primarily interested in maintaining his position through a resolved protection of the status quo, there is little hope that major changes in improvement of teaching will be made. Fortunately most principals, supervisors, and teachers are not seriously impeded by superintendents as they plan and direct the learning experiences for their pupils.

Many schools that suffered a siege of administrative dominance are making changes to modernize their administrator-teacher relationships. Basically these changes involve giving teachers, supervisors, and principals a voice in designing the program. For example, the Downers Grove Community High School [3] has the following administrative organization:

Organized on the principles of democratic planning is the administration of the Downers Grove Community High School in the fact that it demands the cooperative working of school board, administration, members, faculty and students. The general policies and regulations of the school are set up by the school board members and the superintendent.

[2] R. S. Lynd and H. M. Lynd, *Middletown in Transition*, p. 206, Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1937.

[3] *A Handbook of Information*, p. 10, Downers Grove Community High School, Downers Grove, Ill.

the duties performed by principals might be stimulating to study, but for illustrative purposes only, selected areas for which the principal must assume responsibility are presented at this point. The principal should:

1. Develop with his teachers a philosophy for the school. This will bring the principal, supervisors, and teachers directly to the problem of determining the fundamental business of the school. As the total group or committees from the total group consider this problem, they should develop a realization that in our society the school is the distinctive agency for leading our youth to understand the society into which they have been born and to stimulate them to promote and refine it. The school is a distinctive agency for directing the growth of our youth but it is not the only agency. Among the other agencies that affect the growth of our youth are the home, church, courts, motion picture theaters, etc.

The philosophy should recognize that pupils do not learn passively. The pupil as a learner, as a developing interpreter, of his society is an "active, goal-seeking, adjusting organism."

2. Plan a curriculum with his teachers. The principal must realize that the nature of this curriculum is conditioned by the necessity of providing each pupil an adequate opportunity to acquire skill in the use of the fundamental tools of communication and resultant learning.

3. Evaluate the teaching-material needs of the teachers. Teaching materials are a means to the end of helping pupils enrich selected normal learning experiences. Whenever possible, the principal and supervisors should request teachers, students, and parents to share in the selection of teaching materials.

4. Classify and advance students. From the beginning of their public-school life, pupils are grouped for instructional purposes. The recognition of growth as an individual and continuous process is forcing principals to abandon the "level of achievement basis" for advancement; elementary schools have progressed further than secondary schools in this matter. The pupil should advance as he achieves goals which he and his teachers have set up as desirable for him at his level of maturity.

5. Develop a sound program of discipline and guidance. Discipline is not punishment! Discipline is control through a process of restricting the privileges of individuals who have violated the code of the group to which they belong, and at the same time guiding the individuals so they will not violate the code again and again. The goal in this matter is to make the individual intelligently self-directive.

6. Supervise the maintenance of the school plant. The principal must recognize the relationship between adequate custodial services and the

member in line with his interests is appointed to a committee whose deliberations are periodically reviewed and may become part of the school policy. Each committee is composed of teachers with like interests, and to prevent the possibility of any committee thrusting self-centered interests upon the total group, the faculty in monthly meetings has the opportunity to review all recommendations. Third, whenever possible, students are asked to assist on various committees. As the program of this school continues to move forward, student representatives will probably become integral parts of all committees. In addition this school has probably experimented with, and is looking forward to, the day when the community members will also have an opportunity to express their opinions through committee representatives.

There is ample evidence throughout this entire example that the leadership of this school has realized the power that is inherent in democratic group action. The emphasis that is placed upon understanding and appreciation is indicative that the growth process as it applies to all school personnel is based upon sound philosophy. To solicit the opinion of all is indicative of the fact that administrators, supervisors (heads of departments), and pupils all mutually respect each other.

This administrative program is not being advocated as being ideal but it does represent a major, yet possible for many school systems, advancement over the traditional concept of administrator-supervisor-teacher relationship.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

The qualifications for principals approximate those established for city superintendents. Many principals have never had administrative experiences before assuming their first principalships. In many instances this is necessarily so, but regardless of the fact that they may not have had administrative experiences, they should have had opportunities to demonstrate their aptitude as democratic group leaders.

Principals are usually appointed to their positions by the superintendent and are directly responsible to him. The superintendent is responsible to the school board and people for the operation of the whole school system, while the principal is usually only responsible for the operation of a single building. A combined list of all

the nature of the work which the building supervisors will do. Only through such an understanding will it be possible for the principal to eliminate duplication of effort.

It is impossible to move from theory to practice in the supervisory field without knowing the legal basis for supervision and, within the framework of the legal basis, the individuals who have a delegated responsibility to establish a program for supervision. It is also important for all school personnel to know the personal and professional qualities that are demanded of all competent administrators and supervisors. With this knowledge as common property, teachers, supervisors, and administrators are in an objective position to build a firm program of human relations. If any teacher, supervisor, or administrator is embarrassed to have his personal and professional qualifications examined, the challenge is to forget the embarrassment and embark on a directed program of professional improvement.

MOVING FROM THEORY TO PRACTICE

The principal must work closely with his supervisors [4] and is responsible for developing with them an understanding of the techniques of group dynamics. If theory is to become practice, those responsible for leadership in the school must establish an example of being able to work cooperatively and effectively with each other.

Moving into modern supervisory practices will usually necessitate making some fundamental changes. For example, at the secondary level it will be necessary to modify our conception of the position of department head or chairman. At the elementary level it may be necessary to modify our conception of subject-matter organization, promotional practices, grouping of children, etc. Some people consider the process of changing school practices to be a very simple maneuver. The position maintained in this text is that to make a change is a very complex process requiring a great amount of thought, planning, and evaluation if it is to be accomplished successfully. Creative leadership is required to institute as actual school practice a theory that has been designated as good.

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[4] The term "supervisor" as it is used here refers to any person who has been delegated a specific responsibility for some phase of supervision. In Chap. 1 under the subtitle, The Responsibility for Supervision, the various classifications of educational personnel who are usually delegated some responsibility for supervision are discussed.

maintenance of an effective educational program. The principal, following consultation with his supervisors, will make recommendations to the superintendent for alterations and additions to the school building.

7. Develop a democratic method of administering to staff-personnel problems. It is the duty of the superintendent to create those conditions under which each staff member works most effectively. The principal must respect the personality of each teacher and must develop among the teachers the attitude that all belong and are important factors in the continuing effective administration of the educational process.

8. Make maximum use of all public service agencies that contribute to the education of boys and girls. The principal must realize that education is a continuous process in school and out. As a consequence, he should attempt to cooperate with recreation centers, welfare centers, homes, etc., in order to help youth have continuous positive educational experiences.

9. Interpret the school to the community. It is a partial function of the principal to cause the community members to realize that education is an investment not a charity. He should encourage the community members to participate in the planning, analysis, and evaluation of the school program in order to ensure for themselves a greater dividend from their educational investment.

10. Exert supervisory leadership in the school. The principal must exert every effort to free himself from the machinery of his office in order to have more time to help the teachers help the pupils. The principal must realize that supervision is a cooperative responsibility, that variation must be encouraged, that teachers must feel secure during experimentation, that technical assistance must be provided when needed, and that inspiration, humility, and a helpful point of view must be evident at all times. The principal must encourage and help provide for the professional growth of his teachers. The principal who is a democratic leader will provide for his own professional growth.

Most principals, especially in larger schools, will require help in order to supervise adequately the educational process. In cooperation with the superintendent the principal should delegate part of the supervisory responsibility to teachers in his building. The people to whom this responsibility is delegated should be respected in the school and community; they should fully realize the implications of the statements made in the preceding paragraph. In his work with these people the principal should conduct himself in the manner he wishes them to employ in their relations with the teachers.

If the school system provides city- or district-wide supervisory assistance, the principal should be certain that these special supervisors understand

points represent the advances made by the more capable individuals, and the low points the status of the less capable. The group leader must be very versatile in order to enrich the activities of the more capable individuals to prevent them from outdistancing their fellow group members in respect to the basic elements of the proposed change.

Step Three. If a change is to be made, individuals as individuals will feel much more secure in a group than they will working alone. If a change is to have a fair chance for success, the persons who engage in the new practice must feel secure. Supervisors and teachers will not change if their security is endangered. If people are to work cooperatively, they must understand the problem they are working on; they must understand how it is related to their previous practice in order that they can easily move back, for a short time, to their previous practice if it is necessary to regain their security. The principal must exert every effort to convince the supervisors and teachers that he will support and help them at all times. The principal should always attempt to stimulate groups of supervisors or teachers, three or four members, to work together so that each individual receives support from the others; each member will also receive help in evaluating his part in the change. When attempting to put theory into practice, principals should accept as a maxim—provide security and you will increase the chance for success.

Step Four. More and more principals are realizing that change must be geared to the expectations of the school community. Some superintendents believe the thinking of the general public in regard to some proposed educational changes is in advance of the thinking of principals and teachers. This should certainly be a challenge to principals, supervisors, and teachers to be very careful to study community needs and to gear their proposals to the community. If the staff is convinced that the proposed change has community approval, they will feel more secure as they experiment with it.

The inherent power in any group composed of members with similar interests is tremendous. If a change is proposed to such a group, it is to be expected that all members will not immediately concur in their approval of the proposal. As time passes and the thinking of the group brings about modifications in the original idea, it will become more compatible to the majority. However, there may be isolated individuals, or a closely knit minority, who continue to reject the proposal. At this point it is very important

What procedure should be followed by those who are planning to move from a theoretical position into practice? Any recommended procedure for moving from theory to practice must be adapted to the particular situation, but in general the following four steps are basic to the successful move.

Step One. It is necessary to recognize the importance of all the people involved in the situation. These people cannot be merely informed that a change in supervisory practice is to be made; they must be convinced that the change is necessary. This act of convincing is basically a problem of motivation, and it is not fair to assume that other persons will be motivated by the purpose you hold. One of the major jobs of the principal or supervisor, the job of creative leadership, is to lead the supervisors or the teachers in such a way that they actually see the needs that must be met.

Supervision practices that go right to the heart of the teacher's problems should be advocated. Unless the teachers realize that they have problems and that the method being advocated will help them solve the problems, the efforts of the principal or supervisor will avail nothing. Growth is a continuous process; it is for any group an uneven process, and it is for all groups a time-consuming process. If supervisors and teachers are to change their attitude toward supervision, they must be permitted to help formulate the aims and objectives for the new program. If they are not permitted to do this, the activities they might engage in will be meaningless. There is no short cut; the leader must take time to meet the individual growth needs of the group members.

Step Two. We need a better understanding of the manner in which change actually takes place in the individual members of a group. In the past we have acted as though change could come into effect immediately. We now know that it is impossible to be engaging in one practice at one time, and *presto*, change over into something entirely different. Change occurs in each individual at a rate of growth that is determined by the ability of the individual to grow or change. Change occurs slowly, and almost immediately after the change has been instituted there will be roughly as many levels of progression toward the new aims or objectives as there are group members. A total group might change an attitude they have developed, but it is not the group that changes; it is the individuals as individuals who compose the group that change—each at his own rate. Change actually takes place on an uneven front; the highest

and free discussion is welcomed in all cases. Once a decision is reached, it becomes the policy of the group. A pattern of operation is developed within which a Principal has freedom to plan his program.

3. The organization and operation of our Institute, which permits a continuous study of curriculum changes and educational problems.

4. The operation of our X-Dollar purchase plan, whereby—under budgetary controls—Principals and teachers are given the responsibility of requisitioning material and equipment which, in their judgment, can produce the best teaching results.

5. This report, which is given not only to the Board Members, but also to every Principal. These reports are read by the teachers and become the basis of a better understanding by all concerned.

Under this system of administration, the Superintendent becomes the coordinator of activities in the school system and, believe me, they are almost too numerous to count.

The results are amazing because we have a school system in which Members of the Board—Principals—Teachers—Secretaries—Building Custodians, et cetera all have a part in the operation of the organization.

I know of no other school system where this kind of program could be operated. We have in Williamsport the right combination—citizens who want good schools—Board Members who want good schools—and teachers and other employees who have the training, experience, and unselfish devotion to duty to produce a good program of education.

The remaining problems will be solved by a continued program of cooperative endeavor.

The plan of administration and supervision contained in the preceding letter is based upon cooperative group action. Preceding the introduction of the letter, four basic requirements or steps underlying all successful attempts at change were discussed. When the letter is analyzed, the four requirements, repeated below, will be found:

1. Recognition of the importance of the people involved in the change.
2. Understanding how change takes place, the nature of growth.
3. Providing security for those involved in the change.
4. Gearing change to the needs of the community.

A Principal Moves from Theory to Practice. The Los Angeles City Schools' curriculum outline for physical education,[5] at the primary

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[5] *Physical Education*, p. 1, Los Angeles City Schools, School Publication 472, Los Angeles, Calif., 1949.

for the principal, supervisor, or group leader to evaluate his attitude toward the individuals or minority, because while he rejects the behavior of these individuals, he must not reject them as persons.

An Example of the Preceding Steps in Practice. The superintendent of schools, Williamsport, Pennsylvania, has instituted a policy whereby the principal of each school submits a monthly report of activities in his building. These reports are duplicated and made available to all the principals and teachers in the school system. This procedure represents a group action of some magnitude and is succinctly explained by the following letter from the superintendent to the board of education:

To the Members of the
Board of Education
Williamsport, Pennsylvania

Usually the term "invention" brings to mind a mechanical gadget or a scientific discovery.

Actually the definition of the term means to create or to discover.

In this report you will find a description of many inventions which teachers have created to handle certain teaching situations. Many others are being used but teachers usually are not publicity conscious and literally "hide their candles under a bushel."

Perhaps one of the interesting experiments which we are developing in Williamsport is that of the cooperative operation of the school district. The simplest method would be for the Superintendent to tell his teachers —Here are your books and supplies—here is your course of study. Then all that is necessary on the part of administration is to apply the standard of measurement to determine success or failure.

Certain weaknesses are inherent in this method of administration. The progress of the organization depends on the thinking of one person. The complexity of a modern school system is such that progress would be greatly retarded.

The other method is to "invent" ways and means to make the thinking and planning of all persons part of the organization.

We have approached the goal in a number of steps—

1. The active participation of Board Members in the planning program. The best example is found in the building program now under way. Every effort is being made to have Board Members constantly in touch with the progress of the program.

2. The organization of a Principals' Council, which meets at stated times. A docket is prepared and minutes are kept of the meeting. A full

as it is recommended that the services of supervisors of reading, art, etc., should be available. If it is impossible to have the services of supervisors in such areas, the school is certainly to be commended if the principal and his staff demonstrate their interest in establishing programs such as the one presented above for all areas. In such cases it is especially commendatory if a competent teacher, with special training in the area, is selected as chairman and delegated the responsibility for promoting the organization and advancement of the area.

A Superintendent Moves from Theory to Practice. The Williamsport example suggested a type of technique employed by one superintendent to democratize his administration and at the same time to increase the general effectiveness of the educational process. The example which followed suggested a method by which elementary-school principals can advance the effectiveness of the learning environment in a specific area, physical education. To complete the pattern of examples that should help administrators move from theory into practice, it is necessary to present an administrator's thinking about a specific secondary subject-matter area, English. It is hoped that those who read these examples will be able to substitute their area or subject-matter division into the title of the example.

Bardwell,[6] superintendent of schools, LaCrosse, Wisconsin, sets forth six general areas in which a superintendent directly or indirectly can be of service to all teachers of English:

First, the superintendent of schools is responsible for the staff organization. This includes not only the form and efficiency of that organization, but, of far greater importance, its spirit or morale.

Second, the interest and enthusiasm of the administrator is important in developing an awareness on the part of each teacher, whether an instructor in shop or in Latin, that every situation during the school day which calls for communication or self-expression is an opportunity to develop language ability.

Third, the administrator recognizes that development in the language arts is critically influenced by the physical and mental health of the individual, teacher as well as pupil.

Fourth, the superintendent is aware of the wide range of individual differences, particularly among students in the junior and senior high

[6] R. W. Bardwell, "The Function of the Superintendent of Schools in the Improvement of the English Program," *Helping the Teacher of English Through Supervision*, pp. 8–12, The National Council of Teachers of English, 1949.

level, contains the following suggestions for the Principal's Supervision of Physical Education:

1. **Observation of teaching.** Physical education teaching may be judged by the same standards as teaching in any other subject. The same type of individual help used in other areas of instruction will be equally successful in physical education.

2. **Teachers' meetings.** Physical education, used as a topic for study at teachers' meetings at regular intervals, will be profitable. Group discussions help to solve problems.

3. **Organization of teachers.** In a large school all the teachers of a given grade may form a satisfactory study group. This tends to bring all the teaching to the level of the best in the group.

4. **Demonstration by teachers.** Every teacher should see demonstrations of successful teaching in all types of physical education activities. The teacher who has been doing outstanding work should be encouraged to give demonstrations.

5. **Physical education chairman.** The principal should select a teacher with organizing ability and a special interest in physical education to serve as a primary chairman.

6. **Physical education schedule.** The principal arranges a schedule so that not more than two primary physical education classes are on the yard at the same time.

7. **Minimum supplies for each primary room:**

One 6″ ball	Nine bean bags
One 9″ ball	Two double jump ropes
Two 13″ balls	Six single jump ropes
Three hoops	

This program probably represents the maximum amount of supervision that can be expected from the principal who has not been specifically trained in physical education. The outline of the program is filled with key words and phrases that suggest better supervision; for example, reconsider these phrases: "individual help," "group discussions help to solve problems," "teachers of a given grade [similar interests] may form a satisfactory study group," "outstanding work should be encouraged," "select a teacher . . . with special interest." By implication, if not by direct statement, this outline summarizes much of the best thinking in regard to a modern program of supervision. It is recommended that all schools have the services of a supervisor who is a specialist in physical education, just

are to maintain an effective educational program. For example, if the teacher is to make provision for individual differences, the administrator must exert every effort to keep the teacher's pupil load and class size at a level where individual boys and girls can be given time and attention. From the standpoint of community environment, the administrator must realize that the teacher can be conditioned by the children and the children can be conditioned by the teacher. This process is especially dangerous in the elementary schools where the teacher is in almost constant contact with the children all day. To illustrate, if a major part of the second-grade children come from homes in which a foreign language is spoken part of the time, maybe all the time, the children will have language-arts problems peculiar to their group. The teacher who is with this group all day may become so conditioned to the language idiosyncrasies of the children that he will fail, through no fault of his own, to recognize the language problems of the children. In this case the teacher, in addition to needing help from a language-arts supervisor, needs an administrator who will be sympathetic to arranging the program in such a manner that the teacher has enough variation to enable him to remain aware of the children's problems.

THE TEACHER

A great amount of space has been devoted to an analysis of the relations between the superintendents, principals, and supervisors. The relations between the supervisor and teacher have also been analyzed. Before passing on to a consideration of other phases of educational supervision, a few remarks must be made about teachers.

The function of the teacher is to direct the educational process as it applies directly to youth. As the director of this process, the teacher is responsible for selecting learning experiences which are appropriate for each child at his level of maturity. This selective process involves a system of values because the teacher must decide which experiences all pupils should have and which should be limited to some of the pupils.

When the teacher selects learning experiences for youth, he expects youth to react to them. The teacher is responsible for evaluating, approving or disapproving, these reactions. It has been stated that the public school is the special agency which our society has established to continue its promotion and refinement. The school teacher

schools. These are differences not only in ability and capacity, but also in the use and appreciation of language.

Fifth, the superintendent, because of the very nature of his job, is better acquainted with the total community outside the classroom than is the average teacher. He recognizes the elements outside the school which affect the language patterns of the children.

Sixth, the organization of the English instruction throughout the entire school system should be the responsibility of those who are trained and experienced in the field of English, and not dictated by an administrator who is limited in his grasp particularly of the fine points of such an organization.

Here we have an example of an administrator who sees through the machinery of his organization to such important things as staff spirit or morale and a nondictated program. This is the second example in this section of a superintendent who is undoubtedly encouraging his principals and supervisors to be educational leaders and not merely executors of assigned tasks.

All teachers appreciate a sincere display of interest in their work by the superintendent, principal, or supervisor. If, for example, the principal does not display interest and enthusiasm in the work of his teachers, it will be impossible for him to establish the type of human relationships between the various members of the faculty, and between the faculty and himself, that he needs if he is to be a creative leader. The author recalls the case of a geography teacher who invited his principal to evaluate a lesson that the teacher thought was going to be exceptionally good. The principal attended the class, proceeded to go to sleep in the back of the room and, when the class period was finished, instructed the teacher to be more careful about the ventilation in the room. This display of no interest and no enthusiasm so appalled the teacher that he requested a transfer away from the school. The successful administrator will delight in observing the work of his teachers, and this delight will be translated into spirited, enthusiastic leadership of his staff.

We have emphasized the importance of "knowing your community" before designing or evaluating your educational program. The fact has been established that the profile of human growth is uneven, due to the differences in all individuals. Our present example, points 4 and 5, offers further substantiation of these truths. The administrator must be cognizant of these truths if his ·school or schools

Principals who are sincerely interested in developing adequate programs for supervision must do four things. First, they must formulate an administrative policy that is democratic in action as well as in theory. Second, by exemplifying attitudes of interest, respect, fairness, etc., they will seek to build cooperative relationships between the various staff members and between the staff members and themselves. Third, they will demonstrate their willingness to help teachers and supervisors grow professionally. Fourth, they will develop the ability to coordinate the work of all supervisors.

then is a specially trained person who selects experiences from our societal life, motivates pupils to react to them, and evaluates the reaction. On the basis of the evaluation the teacher, in an attempt to meet the needs of all, selects new experiences for some pupils and modifies current experiences for others.

In our society this is a very important process. The function of supervision is to direct and help teachers to grow in order that they may execute this process with an ever-increasing amount of skill and efficiency. Stout [7] expresses the problem in the following manner:

The supreme need of the American system of education is a body of dynamic teachers who are eager to make the community a place where talent is marketed, where human values are enriched, and where the basic needs of life are satisfied; teachers who are possessed with a zeal for truth about the crucial facts of the community in which pupils live and grow; who are thrilled at the prospect of guiding the relationship of individual and institution so that richer and ever richer personality and culture may be created; teachers who take courage in the thought that whenever one lifts the life of a community, he lifts by just so much also the life of America; finally, teachers who are devoted to the task of giving to the communities of this nation a generation of men and women trained to think their way through the complex ramifications of modern society, charged with the spirit of truth and justice, and ready to meet the situations which tomorrow will bring.

SUMMARY

The school administrative official who is most familiar to all community members is the principal. Many principals consider their function to be the performance of tasks assigned to them by the superintendent and make little or no effort to be educational leaders in their communities. Fortunately dominance, in relation to principals, is not a characteristic of our better superintendents. These superintendents encourage and help their principals to become creative educational leaders at school and in the community.

The only basis upon which all human relations can be firmly built is mutual respect for personalities. Dictatorial principals who lack the integrity to respect each personality in their schools will fail to build an adequate educational program.

[7] D. G. Stout, *Teacher and Community*, p. vi, World Book Company, Yonkers, N.Y., 1941.

have severely criticized the curriculum. Let us direct our thinking to the origin of the curriculum problem and to some practical suggestions for supervisors who sincerely want to improve the curriculum.

INTRODUCTION TO THE AMERICAN CURRICULUM PROBLEM

From the time of its discovery until the present, America has been a land of migration and change. Our people have moved ever westward into one land frontier after another. When the quantity and quality of the frontier began to decrease, our people began to retreat from it and gather in cities. As the frontier and cities developed, a demand arose for more efficient lines of communication to knit the land empire together. In compliance with the demand, we have experienced the development of the pony express; river-boat traffic; stage coach; coal, diesel, and electric rail operations; telegraph; telephone; radio; newspapers; magazines; books; motion pictures; television; automobiles; and that mocker of state, national, and international boundary lines, the airplane—all these means of communication have created problems that demand more supervision for the educational process.

The richness of our natural resources, our desire for a high standard of living, and our desire to release the creative ability of all our people, all but hurled us into an industrial expansion that has left the world in its wake. Efficient communication, natural wealth, industrialization, individual and group desires, released creativity, and a rapidly expanding public-school system have combined to give us the highest-measured standard of living in the world; this standard of living and the means that make it possible have created problems for the supervisors of the educational process.

Civil war and world wars, depression and prosperity have visited America, but she has been virile and has surmounted these obstacles. Her government has been the creation and the servant of the people; it has worked well when the people have accepted their individual responsibility for it through the intelligent use of their citizenship privileges. America's industries have expanded out of the country to utilize the markets and natural resources of the world; her citizens are developing a concept of the interdependency of men which has been expressed as the idea of "One World." To develop the truth

Chapter 8. IMPROVING CURRICULUM PRACTICES

Many teachers and administrators have never taken time to analyze the function of the various parts of the curriculum [1] in the educational process. Far too many teachers and administrators have taken for granted that subject-matter offerings approved by state and local boards of education will satisfy the educational needs of our youth as these needs are reflected in the objectives for education. Such deviations as exist have not usually been determined by a study of the school community, but have been dictated by immediate pressures. Two examples will illustrate this point. First, the superintendent of a school district may require his principals to submit statements of recommendations for additions to the curriculum, and in order to gain favor, the principals will submit ideas that appear to be desirable but that are unsound from a standpoint of the needs of the community. Second, parents may insist that the curriculum remain the same as it was when they were in school without knowledge of the trends in education and the principles upon which these trends are based.

It has often been stated that the curriculum can be no better than the curriculum as it is conceived in the mind of the teacher. But many teachers accept the curriculum in terms of faulty psychology or outmoded information about the nature of human growth and development. Other teachers accept the current offerings in subject matter because it is more expedient or easier to do so than it is to change. The curriculum must be designed so that it will improve the school and out-of-school environment of those human beings for whom it was designed and for whom it ought to be constantly changing in order that it might help them make a more adequate adjustment to life. The curriculum is the basic problem in American schools, and the problem is most acute at the secondary level. This problem has long been recognized by educators who, as a group,

[1] The term "curriculum" as it is used here refers to the whole body of educational offerings in a school.

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have their birth in all the aspects of our country that are touched by people.

To help their children meet and enjoy the challenges of living in America, her people have established an elaborate public-school system. It is a goal of the American people to provide every boy and girl a free education through a minimum of a twelfth year of school. However, American educators realize that just to spend so many years in school will not necessarily prepare our youth for living; it is necessary to have educational objectives [2] to be reached or approximated by our youth during their years in school. In addition to defining objectives, it is necessary to understand clearly the methods we intend to employ in order to achieve the objectives and the nature of the learning experiences to which the methods will be applied. Before a supervisor can hope to make more effective that part of the educational process for which he is responsible, he must clear away faulty notions about the nature of the learning process.

A SUPERVISOR CONSIDERS THE NATURE OF GROWTH AND LEARNING

Growth is a continuous process. Youth today are the sum of what they were yesterday plus the effects of the experiences which they have undergone in the meantime. Tomorrow they will be what they are today plus the experiences they will have in the intervening period. Growth is change, and if the change is educational in a positive sense, there will be progress as represented by improvement over past conditions. The child grows as a whole, as a unified organism, as an individual "in a world of things, people, and ideas." It is impossible to compartmentalize the individual and train each part separately. For the purpose of emphasis, a teacher may consider a certain particular phase of growth as a separate item but he must always return to a consideration of the unity of the individual.

The changes that occur in the individual as a result of growth are not due to chance. Because of the relationship that exists between the past, present, and future, it is possible to predict, and to a large extent control, the result of the changes. The supervisor who evaluates the curriculum with his teachers should cling to these truths of continuous growth, unity of growth, and the predictability of the

[2] An analysis of selected "sets" of objectives for education is presented in Chap. 2.

of the interdependency of men creates a new problem area for the educational supervisor.

As the wealth of America increased, her problems increased. Efficiency became the watchword of her industrial leaders, and as machine efficiency increased, the people of America developed a leisure-time problem. As efficiency increased, competition increased, and now we must stop to analyze the ethics of our conduct in relation to other people. Power machinery tended to free the farmer from the land but it also drove the young farm people to the factories and businesses of the city. In the cities the nature of family life changed, the boundaries of the family circle were broken, and many functions that were once the exclusive prerogative of the family were given over to other agencies in the community.

The very nature of much of our work has changed. At one time a young person who wished to be employed had a salable skill to offer or was willing to become an apprentice in order to develop a salable skill. The young person of today is often only the "living part" of his machine, the only salable skill he needs is an attitude toward work.

The American story develops in slums and mansions, coalpits and sun-drenched prairies, factories and small shops, on horseback and in airplanes that outdistance the speed of sound. The story is staged against a background of deep water, blue lakes, mountains, forests, deserts, skyscrapers, sod huts, and a system of rivers that frame the endless plains that give America her harvest abundance.

America's story is never ending because it is a story of human beings who individualistically desired independence. These human beings are individualistic but they are a compassionate people who, in a final analysis, are never brutish. America is a land of churches and Christian homes, each tolerant of the other.

America is a land of winter and summer, spring and autumn—a land of perpetual contrasts. America is a land of differences, a land that recognizes and uses as a strength the individual differences in her people. The people are the important thing, and in America we subordinate everything to the will of the people. This is rightly so because it is the people, not the skyscrapers, the airplanes, automobiles, the factories, but the people, who are made in the image of God. It is for the people that the educational supervisor must offer the leadership necessary to solve the curriculum problems that

be constantly evaluated to ensure its being composed of the types of experiences needed by boys and girls who are faced with a difficult problem of life adjustment.

To be effective, learning must be an active process regardless of the philosophy of the school, progressive or traditional. A creative teacher in a very traditional school will discover methods of utilizing the problem-solving ability of boys and girls in such a way that their learning experiences are greatly enriched. Directing student learning experiences is the teacher's major responsibility. The creative teacher will never be so naïve that he will assume total responsibility for formulating, explaining, and illustrating the so-called "learning experiences," thus reducing class activity for the students to a rote memorization of the teacher's explanation and illustration. The creative supervisor will do well to be solicitous of the educational needs of the boys and girls whenever he discovers a classroom situation in which the only direct activity is perpetually teacher activity. A situation such as this will demand creativity on the part of the supervisor because the teacher involved probably has a personality problem or problems in addition to his lack of an adequate foundation in the type of methodology required for effective teaching in a modern school.

IMPLEMENTING CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT
THROUGH SUPERVISION

Preceding sections have suggested the origin of the curriculum problem as it stems from our society. Selected psychological considerations have been presented in an attempt to cause supervisors to reconsider the nature of growth and learning before they consider a reorganization of the curriculum that might be based on faulty psychology. The immediate problem is to suggest methods of implementing curriculum development through supervision and to follow this consideration with a discussion of major trends in curriculum organization.

Identifying Problems. When supervisors can direct teachers toward an intelligent definition of their problems, they have taken the first step toward curriculum improvement. There is really only one problem to be answered: Are the youth in our schools developing the competencies, understandings, and attitudes which they all need in

results of growth because he and his teachers should develop the experiences that compose the curriculum upon the basis of these truths.

Learning is an active process that must be based upon the individual student's ability to perceive, comprehend, react to, and integrate with past experiences the selected experiences of which the curriculum is composed. For example, in the teaching of reading the child must first be able to perceive the symbols of which the words are composed, a, b, c, y, x, etc. Second, the child must be able to comprehend the ideas expressed by a combination of words regardless of how simple the idea might be. Third, the child must react to the idea that he has comprehended. At this point a valuing system comes into operation, for the child must react in terms of previously developed understandings. Fourth, the child integrates new ideas with past experiences. His reactions to the present learning experience should change his behavior in such a way that there will be progress evaluated as improvement over past conditions.

The broad objective for all learning experiences is to help clarify, intensify, and interpret these lifelike experiences so that the youth will be more intelligently self-directive when they encounter problem situations as citizens in our society. To obtain the greatest amount of good from their school experiences, boys and girls of all ages must have the opportunity to participate actively in the learning experiences. One reason why units of work have assumed such an important place in our methodology is because they provide the students an opportunity to participate in the planning, conducting, and evaluating of their learning experiences. When supervisors fully realize the importance of the student's activity in the learning process, they will also realize that elementary and secondary schools must organize their curriculums so that the students will have the opportunity to participate in the types of activities from which they will derive the greatest amount of profit. For example, if secondary-school boys and girls are required to study mathematics in order to increase their understanding of the qualitative and quantitative nature of the world in which they live, they must not confine their learning experiences in school exclusively to a memorization of geometric propositions. In other words, a curriculum is never static. It must

8. Should general science be offered in both junior and senior high school? If the answer is yes—what should be the gradation of difficulty between the two courses?

9. How can the readiness of boys and girls for science instruction be determined?

10. What types of problems should be included in science courses to ensure student development of scientific methods and attitudes?

An examination of these questions will reveal that they are concerned with problems ranging from the first to the twelfth-grade levels. The examination also reveals that all the problems are not directly associated with the original survey question. To work efficiently a group must impose some limits upon itself. Consequently, the first issue is centered in the question: Shall we organize our group to study all the problems or shall we delete all problems that are not directly associated with the original survey question? If the group decides to consider all the problems, it will be necessary to organize committees composed of people with like interests but with the understanding that representatives from all committees may be used as consultants. Within the framework of the total list of problems, each committee should set the limits for its action. For example, one committee might take the problem of readiness for science. When they have accepted this problem, it becomes a responsibility of the committee chairman [4] to restrain his group from considering issues that are not directly related to the committee's central problem.

When the range of problems covers grades 1 through 12, it is possible to have twelfth-grade teachers sharing experiences with first-grade teachers. The first time the supervisor or supervisors bring a group of teachers together representing all grade levels, it is natural to expect to uncover some wide gaps in understanding. If the supervisor is a competent discussion leader,[5] he will be able to close those gaps by introducing topics related to science readiness, problems in science evolving from the wide range of abilities at each grade level, aims for learning science skills, etc. It is always important to give first consideration to those problems that are of greatest concern to

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[4] It is recommended that the supervisor discuss with the total group the characteristics and duties of a competent committee chairman, recorder, etc., before the group is divided into committees.

[5] Refer to Chap. 4 to review the discussion of the qualities a supervisor should possess in order to be an effective discussion leader.

order to make a satisfactory adjustment to life? [3] No one person is capable of answering this question for all teachers. The question cannot be answered "yes" or "no" because the teachers are all meeting the imperative needs to a degree; teachers are not completely failing or being completely successful. Since the teachers are meeting these needs to a degree, there is probably some common ground on which they would all agree that a program for curriculum improvement might be based.

To determine this common ground, a survey might be conducted by the supervisor or by a committee of teachers representing the group for which the supervisor is responsible. This survey should be centered around a simple question, for example: Will you please list the problems you have encountered in determining the grade placement of science materials? The medium for this survey should be a letter, not a check list. It would be easy for the supervisor or the committee to construct a check list for this survey, but one goal in this process is to cause the teachers to define their problems intelligently. In all probability when the survey responses are tabulated there will be a great amount of variation in regard to the degree to which the responses are pertinent to the original question. The following list might be suggestive of the types of problems that will be submitted:

1. What methods have been successfully used to develop an understanding of the difference between a concept and a principle?

2. Is it possible to teach scientific abstractions without employing accompanying illustrations and establishing practical applications?

3. Should science instruction be integrated with geography and history in the elementary school?

4. At what grade level should the teacher substitute the logical for the psychological approach?

5. What types of materials should be used in elementary science?

6. What should be the purpose of science in the elementary school?

7. How do elementary teachers proceed in the development of their own science materials?

[3] In Chap. 3, the "Imperative Needs of Youth," taken from *Planning for American Youth*, were presented as examples of the areas in which youth needs to develop adequate competencies, understandings, and attitudes. Briefly the areas are salable skills, health, citizenship, family living, consumer judgment, scientific method, aesthetic qualities, leisure time, ethical values, and rational thinking and expression.

to the question, "What did 'Mr. Administrator' think of our project?" —with, "I don't know. He didn't have time to attend the discussion meetings." Teachers and supervisors need the type of security that can only evolve from a "human" administrative evaluation of their work. The administrator who perpetually fails to find time to evaluate and react to the work of his supervisors and teachers is failing to perform one of the most important responsibilities of his position; he is failing in the area in which he has the opportunity to exert his most direct influence upon the education of the youth in his school or schools.

Curriculum Improvement. The identification of curriculum problems followed by a group and administrative evaluation of the problems are the first steps in curriculum adjustment. *Unfortunately many study groups cease to function as soon as the problems have been identified* because the next step is to begin a curriculum revision that will meet the needs revealed through the activity of problem identification. This is the step that actually involves making changes. The supervisor should be readily available to his teachers at this time for this is when they may feel they are losing their personal security and the safest and easiest way is backward, not forward.

What specific functions does the supervisor perform as the program for improvement begins? There are many things the supervisor might do, but it is recommended that his basic actions be geared to the following suggestions:

1. Revision should begin with existing courses. To gain the greatest amount of support from administrators, teachers, other supervisors, school patrons, etc., is the reason for introducing revisions for improvement within the framework of the present area or course offerings. At the start all notion that a new course may develop must be dispelled from the minds of all who may be affected by the change. If this point is made clear to all administrators and teachers, it should have the effect of focusing the attention of all concerned on the possibilities of making improvements within the framework of the existing program.

2. Instruction must be flexible. A simple beginning will not result in adequate curriculum improvement. Procedures must be modified occasionally and changes made to meet classroom problems that were not considered in the planning and evaluating meetings. Supervisors should urge their teachers to enlist the help of student committees in exploring new topics, solving problems, and evaluating revisions.

the teachers. A first response to this statement might naturally be: We always give first consideration to those problems that are of the greatest concern to the teachers. The answer isn't quite that easy because far too often an aggressive supervisor attempts to interpret teacher problems and ends up with a product that the teachers fail to identify as their own. If the teachers cannot identify, as their own, a problem that has been selected for group work, they may merely go through the motions of problem-solving activity and fail completely to experience professional growth.

The problem of communicating to other teachers the results of problem-solving activity, and obtaining a reaction to these results, can be a major problem in large cities or school districts. One method of combating this problem is to arrange for representatives from the problem-solving groups to conduct round-table discussions with small groups of teachers throughout the school system. It is important, to keep these groups small in an attempt to develop a personalized environment in which reactions to the results of the problem-solving activity will be uninhibited. The responsibility for leadership at these round-table discussions must be assumed by members of the problem-solving group. It is very important to encourage the attendance of administrators at these small discussions.

When the reactions received to the results of the problem-solving activity have been obtained, the supervisor should again bring his total group together. The group should discuss the reactions they have received and in light of the reactions, they should plan for continued study. When thinking of curriculum improvement, it is extremely important always to be conscious that the job is never finished. To recall the opening statements in this chapter, America is a land of change and motion; adequate curriculum experiences can only be provided if we continually consider the small and large modifications that are necessary to keep harmony between life and school experiences.

The supervisors were encouraged to invite the administrators to attend the round-table discussions. This is necessary if the supervisors are to obtain an objective evaluation from the administrators. All too often supervisors have their work criticized negatively by administrators, who by their own admission, are basing their criticism on some chance remark or secondhand report from a friend. All too often supervisors are forced to face their teachers and respond

sider the changes necessary. The school board represents the educational will of the people and it should be encouraged to state its adopted policies to the people. The teachers who are involved in curriculum changes will feel more secure if they know the school board has publicly approved.

9. Solicit public evaluation of the changes. It is difficult to measure changes in community opinions and attitudes. Informal parent-teacher discussions, especially if they are conducted in the homes of the parents, are a fairly effective method of exploring the thinking of parents. This procedure can be developed into an informal survey; it must be used with full recognition that individual biases sometimes color any discussion procedure.

10. Planning must precede the formulation of school curriculum policy. A policy that amounts to more than a mere paper statement can only be developed through a process of identifying problems, planning carefully, and considering possible results. Policy must not be dictated by pressure groups. Policy, in this case curriculum policy, should have the approval of the administration including the board of education.

The supervisor must be aware of the basic needs of youth and must be able to lead his teachers to develop and provide experiences which will fulfill these needs. One function of supervision is to study trends in curriculum content and organization in school districts other than their own. We all realize that the curriculum that is suitable for a boy in a Pennsylvania coal-mining town would not be equally suitable for an Iowa farm boy. At the same time, we know that both boys have some common needs, and barring a major difference in their development of salable skills, the difference in the curriculum requirements for each boy may well be a difference in emphasis rather than content. In forty-eight states and approximately 3,000 counties, we have thousands of teachers and supervisors performing somewhat identical tasks. A creative supervisor should establish a curriculum exchange program between his teachers and teachers in other counties and states. The flood of refreshing ideas that can be mobilized through such an exchange program will prove to be a challenge to all who participate in it.

THE SUPERVISOR CONSIDERS A PROBLEM OF INTERPRETATION

The majority of parents probably would define the "school curriculum" as the whole body of courses offered in a school, secondary

3. Report progress to the entire faculty. At suitable intervals the supervisor should prepare a progress report for distribution to the entire faculty. Often the facts discovered in attempting to improve one area prove to be, with little modification, applicable in other areas. Many times, guiding principles for curriculum improvement will become apparent to teachers and supervisors as work proceeds in planning and drafting revisions for an area; these principles should become the common tools of all teachers.

4. Help prepare articles for newspapers and educational periodicals. If education is to be a strong profession, practices that are successful on the local level must be suggested for use at the state and national level. Most teachers experience a great amount of personal satisfaction when a report of some practice or method they have developed appears in a periodical. Supervisors should capitalize upon every opportunity to build staff morale and security.

5. Teacher education must be individual. No plan for curriculum improvement will be successful unless the teacher in the classroom has a clear understanding of the need for the change and the methods that must be followed to implement it. In addition to group work, the supervisor must work with his teachers as individuals. Each teacher must be convinced of his importance in the total educational picture. Each teacher must also realize the importance of being free from prejudices toward individuals and groups.

6. Change can be promoted by a democratic sharing of experiences. The supervisor must be ever alert to discover areas in which the sharing of mutual experiences will contribute to the progress of the whole group. Supervisors must determine the extent to which the community should be encouraged to engage in the revision or change of the curriculum. It is believed, for example, that teachers of commercial subjects could profit through sharing experiences with the town's businessmen; public-health workers could contribute to the health program, etc.

7. Students should be expected to help. Student leaders can offer an invaluable interpretive service during the introduction of curriculum revisions. The wise supervisor will discuss proposed curriculum changes with student leaders, student clubs and organizations, and in turn he can expect the leaders and organizations to support and to evaluate the changes.

8. The school board should support the changes with a public statement. Administrators and supervisors should encourage the school board to make a public statement of policy favoring curriculum changes when the professional educational leaders of the school or school system con-

It is to be hoped that most American parents want these same things for their children. Each of these four items can be directly associated with one or more of the "Imperative Needs of Youth." Reconsider the items that the parents want to de-emphasize:

1. Social studies.
2. Global attitudes.
3. Human relations.

These items can all be associated with one or more of the "Imperative Needs of Youth" and they can also be associated with the items that the parents want included in the educational experiences for their children. In other words, the basic conflict in this particular case can be resolved by clarifying definitions and perhaps by modifying the methodology of the school to bring it into harmony with the level of thinking in the community. Growth is a continuous process. This truth applies to communities as well as to boys and girls, teachers, supervisors, etc. A school cannot progress at a rate faster than that at which the community is able to progress. It is a function of supervision to stimulate and direct this community growth. This stimulation and growth must often be an individual process because it is not the community that grows; it is the individuals as individuals who compose the community.

Legal Reminder. The public-school system is constructed upon a ramifying base of national, state, and local legal provisions. The supervisor who would improve the curriculum must know the limits imposed upon his work by law; he especially must know the respects in which the law provides an opportunity to improve through change. It is also important to realize that the law develops from the social drives of the people. The supervisor who desires to accept his responsibility for educational leadership in the community must study and organize his community in terms of the social forces that are present.

Learning to accept, adjust to, or to control change are important factors in the democratic concept. The people in a majority created the law and they can change it. The realization of this concept plus a sincere desire to make the educational process more effective for boys and girls should furnish supervisors with all the motivation they need to attempt to become community educational leaders.

or elementary. This is a perfectly valid definition of the curriculum, and if it is out of harmony with the thinking of modern educators, it is because it is not broad enough, certainly not because it includes too much. The educator of today would elaborate on the definition stated above by saying that in addition to courses like algebra, English, chemistry, etc., the modern school offers our youth many additional experiences in such things as clubs, student government, athletics, etc. Consequently, the curriculum is the sum of all the educative experiences that are offered to our youth in a modern school. The Committee on Curriculum Planning of the National Council of Teachers of English defines a curriculum this way: "A curriculum cannot be merely a list of topics to be taught; it must be a tool for setting the stage for group thinking and action."

Professional groups are to be commended for studying and redefining their terminology. However, supervisors must assume, and must encourage their teachers to assume, a great amount of responsibility for explaining new definitions to the public. The role of educational leadership carries with it the responsibility of teaching the general public about the advances, based on an ever-growing body of research, that are being made in promoting the efficiency of the educational process. Faulty public relations are usually responsible for parent delegations stating to school boards that they desire a return to the "simple virtues—the teaching of basic subjects, respect for authority, consideration of others, modesty and pride in individual initiative" in place of so much attention "to social studies, global attitudes, and human relations." Naturally it is possible that the school being criticized in this modified quotation has gone too far too fast for its community members. On the other hand, an examination of the complaint leads one to believe that the school and its patrons have not come together to analyze what the youth of their community need in the way of educational experiences. Reconsider the demands of the parents; they want the following essentials included in the educational experiences of their children:

1. Teaching of basic subjects.
2. Respect for authority.
3. Consideration of others.
4. Modesty and pride in individual initiative.

also understands reading to be a tool for the gaining of information and a source of genuine pleasure.

2. To use the whole method rather than parts in beginning reading. Before reading, the attempt is made to develop the child's background so that he may have the ability to understand and appreciate the language and sentence structure of materials and books to be read.

3. To use the "experience method." In the process of beginning to read, the child recognizes names on materials, lockers, charts, objects collected on excursions, etc.

4. To integrate reading more closely with other phases of language arts, listening, speaking, etc. In the home the child learns words and meanings together. This process must be continued in school and must be integrated with the reading programs through discussions, stories, and the give and take of classroom living.

5. To use phonics as one means of inducting children into reading. Phonics is only one method to obtain the aim for efficient reading. Phonics is concerned with generalizations about words and should only be taught when needed.

6. To give purposefulness to reading. Eventually, to be able to engage successfully in independent study, the student must be able to read efficiently. From the very beginning of the reading program, the teacher should encourage the child to read in order to gather information needed in problem-solving situations.

7. To utilize reading as a tool to be used in solving a central problem. The teacher and his students plan a unit around some central theme. In harmony with trend number 6, the boys and girls read in relation to this theme.

8. To utilize various methods of teaching reading in an attempt to better provide for individual differences. Not so long ago the "drill method" was virtually the only method employed in the teaching of reading. The teacher in the modern school employs many methods; the experience method was suggested in trend number 3.

9. To divide the class into flexible groups to better provide for the various levels of reading ability. Growth is a continuous process, and while each child will go through the same phases of growth, he will approach and go through them each at his own individual rate. In recognition of this fact the modern teacher divides the children into ability-level reading groups within the classroom. The composition of these groups is very fluid, and a child can be moved from one group to another as his needs demand.

10. To offer careful guidance in beginning reading in order to reduce the need for remedial reading at a later date. It is rather generally recog-

SELECTED TRENDS IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Trends in elementary education can be classified as specific and general. The supervisor at the secondary level cannot possibly direct the improvement of his teachers unless he thoroughly understands the aims toward which the elementary supervisors and teachers have directed their work. Some examples of general trends in elementary education that should be considered by supervisors at the secondary level are:

1. To develop democratic relationships among individuals and groups representing various races, religions, and creeds.

2. To increase the amount of pupil activity in planning and evaluating units of work and projects.

3. To encourage boys and girls to participate in activities which they have judged to be related to their own goals.

4. To increase the length of school-controlled time by adding a multitude of recreation and camping projects on a year-round basis.

5. To increase the amount of guidance time and services for each child. The goal of this program is to make the child increasingly more self-directive.

6. To confront the child with a greater number of problem-solving experiences as part of the attempt to develop his critical thinking ability.

7. To expand the nursery and kindergarten programs.

8. To utilize community resources in the development of the educational experiences for the child. (If the child understands his community, he may attempt to improve it.)

9. To reconsider the nature of child growth and development and to modify the nature of the child's learning experiences accordingly.

10. To encourage the community members to use the school as an educational and recreational center. (The school property is the property of the people. They have a right to use it.)

To make these general trends more meaningful, it is necessary to consider them against the background of the trends in a specific area. For example, let us consider trends in reading which is a subdivision of the language-arts area:

1. To stress the importance of readiness for reading at different levels. Reading is the child's first systematic contact with written or printed symbols. It is extremely important that the child not only have adequate mental age, sensory abilities, physical and emotional health, but that he

gressive change, and different communities will develop readiness for change at different times. Regardless of the community's readiness for change, the supervisor and his teachers should develop a "trends file" that can be studied and expanded as part of the in-service program to prepare for change.

SELECTED TRENDS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

Supervisors at the elementary and secondary levels must study the trends at both levels in order to have a complete picture of the operation of the educational process. By studying trends at the elementary level, the secondary supervisors will receive an indication of the readiness of boys and girls to participate in certain types of experiences at the secondary level. Conversely, if the elementary supervisor is aware of the types of experiences usually offered at the secondary level, he will be more qualified to encourage his teachers to plan the types of experiences that will enable boys and girls to develop the type of readiness they will need. For example, the modern elementary teacher employs the unit method in the teaching of reading. Consequently, by the time boys and girls reach the junior-high-school level, the supervisors can expect them to have had an abundance of foundation experiences in this method which is becoming so popular at the secondary level. Growth is continuous, and if the educational process is to become increasingly more effective, elementary and secondary supervisors must coordinate their work to ensure boys and girls a continuous program of educational experiences.

. There are specific and general trends in the curriculum experiences at the secondary level. Some of these trends are centered in the subject-matter content and some in the organization of the subject-matter areas. The following list is suggestive of the nature of the trends as they affect content:

1. *English.* The ability to receive and transmit ideas is fundamental to all educational growth. A planned program of instruction is needed to direct and develop the ability to receive and express ideas through listening, observing, speaking, reading, and writing. The use of language is a two-way process involving the expression and reception of ideas. All teachers are teachers of English; the person designated as English teacher is the "dealer" in specific English problems. The evaluation of the English program should be in terms of how well do the English

nized that a mental age of six is adequate for beginning reading if the child is gradually introduced through an avenue of interest, but that a mental age of seven or eight is necessary if a formalized drill program is used. The modern teacher uses information such as this plus information about the child's sensory abilities, etc., in order to ensure the child a successful beginning in reading.

11. To establish reading goals in accordance with individual capacities. The modern teacher realizes that reading goals must be established in accordance with the rates of individual growth. Gone is the day when the teacher expected all boys and girls to reach the same reading level at the same time.

12. To develop an understanding of the relationship between reading ability and emotional adjustment. The child will not participate with pleasure in the activities of the group unless he has made a satisfactory social and emotional adjustment. It is very important, in so far as possible, to keep stories within the experiential background of the students. Children of six or seven are especially interested in what happens to them at home and at school, their families, playmates, etc. In other words, the modern teacher makes every effort to capitalize upon the interests of boys and girls knowing they will have a feeling of security and happiness as long as they work in a world of individual interests and a realm of the familiar.

13. To provide experiences with many types of reading materials. Children must have enough experiences with books so that literature becomes interwoven into their own experiences and the children come to think of these experiences as a vital part of many pleasant activities. Many different textbooks, pamphlets, and reference books should be used in place of the traditional single reader.

14. To develop a taste for good literature from the very beginning. The schoolroom library should include many books related to the needs of the boys and girls. It is very important for boys and girls to have freedom in using the classroom library during reading or quiet periods when the teacher is on hand to help with difficult words.

The supervisor should be alert to detect trends in the subject-matter division or area for which he is responsible. Professional journals, publications by state universities, the exchange program suggested earlier, summer school, etc., are suggestive of methods through which the supervisor and his teachers can develop an awareness of trends. To be aware of trends is not enough; the supervisor must know the reasons behind the trends. It is also important for the supervisor to remember that trends are usually indicative of pro-

All will profit by the work of the producers.

Consequently our goal is twofold:

To select through guidance those capable of production.

To make all more intelligent and appreciative consumers of the method of science, the wonders of the natural world, and the products of modern science.

5. *Art.* The trend is toward integrating art with other subjects in order to make them more meaningful. Just a few years ago, art was almost totally unrelated to the rest of the curriculum because it was taught for the superficial purpose of attempting to develop the aesthetic nature in a selected group of young people.

An example of the current trend in art is offered by the following ninth-grade unit titles: Art and Its Relationship to School, Nature, Community, and Industry. The plan in each of these units is to arrange a field trip and upon returning *to intensify some experience from the trip by recording it with some medium—charcoal, pencil, pen and ink, etc.* When this plan is employed, art stimulates the learning experience for all students.

6. *Industrial arts.* According to Magill,[7] "the only general agreement among its [industrial arts] proponents regarding its objectives is that it is a phase of general education and not of vocational education. . . . There are at least four important general objectives which the school shop can serve:

"Household maintenance and handyman activities . . .

"The safe operation and maintenance of automobiles . . .

"Consumer education . . .

"The discovery and development of manipulative interests and attitudes . . ."

In addition to the trends revealed by the preceding four objectives, there is the pronounced trend to change from the unit shop to the general-shop idea. Teachers of industrial arts feel that latent interests are more likely to be developed on a hobby basis than through a formal exploratory course in wood, sheet metal, etc.; *this feeling aids the cause of the general-shop movement.*

7. *Physical education.* Physical educators are propagandizing the undisputed fact that this area has the power to enrich life. By enrichment of life, they mean that the quality and character of life for each individual

[7] W. H. Magill, "Industrial Arts in the Curriculum," in *The High School Curriculum*, H. R. Douglass, ed., Chap. XXVIII, pp. 573–574, The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1947.

(language) skills function in all curricular areas, algebra, history, science, etc.

2. *Mathematics.* For many years the work in mathematics was primarily devoted to preparing students to qualify for university entrance examinations. During these same years those who did not stress the college-preparatory aspect stressed the mental discipline value of mathematics. Today the emphasis in the field of mathematics is away from mental discipline and college preparation to an emphasis on the social and utility values of mathematics. It is often said that we live in a world of numbers and we must prepare our youth to cope adequately with the quantitative and qualitative aspects of their environment. There is some pressure for an upward re-allocation of certain mathematical topics.

3. *Social studies.* The most outstanding development in this area is the fact that the social studies, which includes virtually anything that deals with people and their relations with one another, are being treated as a subject field. Gruhn and Douglass [6] make the following interesting statement in connection with the social sciences:

> "History is being socialized. Emphasis has shifted to a study of the history of labor, education, etc.
>
> "Geography is being humanized. Facts about the earth are still studied, but they are put in the perspective of human utility.
>
> "Political science is being functionalized: Political treatises formerly dealt almost wholly with structure; they now tend to emphasize functions.
>
> "Sociology is being normalized. It now stresses descriptions and analyses of human institutions and their normal functions. Economics is being institutionalized. The economist now recognizes that the mysterious processes of supply and demand, price fixing, production, money, and consumption are amenable to political control."

4. *Science.* An appropriate placement of science materials in grades 1 through 12 is very difficult because very little is known about science readiness. There is an increasing intensity in the attempt at all grade levels to introduce the types of science problems that will cause young people to develop a scientific attitude and appreciation for the scientific methods. The supervisor of science should find the following "general tenets" of interest:

> We live in a world of science.
> Some of us will be producers—and all will be consumers.

[6] W. T. Gruhn and H. R. Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School*, pp. 131-132, The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1947.

is to help boys and girls develop a better understanding of the various aspects of their world by presenting these aspects as "wholes" rather than arbitrarily separated parts which the pupils must attempt to piece together. A fine example of integration of this type is furnished by Pennsylvania's *Elementary Course of Study:* [9]

The Social Living Area involves:

Studies of the natural world and the processes by which it became as it is; studies of the various peoples of the world and how and why they live as they do; and studies of the historical events as they deal with the activities of peoples in the past which influence his present and future—all these help the child to understand the world about him, and to deal with it more intelligently.

The fields of the social and the natural sciences—history, civics, geography, and science—assume their true roles, not as separate areas with opposed objectives, but as interacting factors in the solving of any social problem.

We need an understanding of the interrelation of our cumulative heritage and of natural forces for intelligent participation in a democratic society. Scientific invention is rapidly increasing the inter-dependence of people and all but eradicating the natural barriers which have separated nations. At the same time it is creating problems of world relationship.

Teachers in the elementary grades are quite generally aware of the interrelationship of history and geography, but still largely teach science as a separate and highly specialized subject, or not at all.

This example of integration represents an attempt to offer the boys and girls learning experiences that are concerned with whole ideas as opposed to learning experiences that are concerned with a parcel of information here and a parcel there. It is a time-consuming and difficult task for boys and girls with limited experiences to develop an understanding of isolated bits of information that must be integrated if they are to be understood. Unit planning, used quite extensively at the elementary level, has clearly demonstrated that science experiences should form a part of the curriculum for every elementary girl and boy. A more complete understanding of the nature of the integration suggested above may be derived by studying

[9] "Social Living," *The Elementary Course of Study*, p. 125, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin 233-B, 1949.

is improved. In addition to physical health, the objectives for physical education now include emotional health, wholesome recreation, respect for the rights and feelings of others, sensitivity to injustices, etc. It is easy to see that the physical educators, through the mediums of physical, mental, and emotional health, are attempting to make a major contribution in the area of human relationships.

It is not a purpose of this book to present trends in all the subject-matter areas that are represented on the curriculums in our many secondary schools. The trends that are presented here have been selected from some rather traditional subject-matter areas. It is intended that these trends be considered indicative of the thinking of many educators; under no circumstance are they to be considered as complete lists of trends in the various areas.

As trends are examined, it becomes readily apparent that it is virtually impossible to discuss content trends without referring once again to trends in objectives.[8] The trend that has been long overdue is the tendency to place less emphasis on the detailed memorization of information and to place more emphasis upon the competencies and attitudes our youth need in order to cope adequately with the experiences of living in the modern world. In line with this statement we find that educators are advocating, in almost all subject-matter areas, that increased emphasis be placed on social objectives.

TRENDS IN CURRICULUM REORGANIZATION

The supervisor who desires to improve the curriculum may find it necessary to reorganize the relationship between related parts of the curriculum. If the curriculum needs reorganization, it should actually be reorganized, not reshuffled. It is always advisable for the supervisor, in his capacity as a professional educational leader, to study trends in curriculum reorganization in order to develop his readiness to lead when the situation demands leadership in this direction. The following suggestions for curriculum reorganization are indicative of the thinking of many modern educators.

The Elementary Level. In some respects elementary teachers have advanced more rapidly than secondary teachers to a place where they are reorganizing their curriculum by the process of integrating materials that naturally belong together. The purpose of integration

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[8] The objectives for education were discussed in Chap. 2.

9. An appreciation of the dignity of humankind and of the relative well-being which man has developed through the application of his intelligence, effort, and cooperation to the problems of living; respect for and appreciation of workers of every type who contribute to our welfare, comfort, and security.

10. An appreciation of democracy as a way of life, and the understanding that it is a progressively developing function which is not yet fully achieved, neither in our nation nor in our world—that each person in a democracy has a responsibility in furthering and contributing to the progress of democratic living, in his immediate situation, in his community, his nation, and the world; that within a democratic society, initiative, competition, and cooperation have great values, so long as they exist within the rules of the group and of the social order.

11. An understanding and appreciation of our national ideals and institutions and the place of capable leadership; an understanding of the need for active participation in the cooperative solving of problems; a realization that the privilege of citizenship implies an equal responsibility for the improvement of democratic living. These constitute an intelligent patriotism.

12. A conviction that problems can be solved—that the solving thereof constitutes a social contribution; that a store of facts, concepts, and generalizations is essential in the solving of the issues of group and personal living.

13. An understanding and appreciation of the family organization as an important factor in a democratic society; an understanding of the need for active, cooperative participation in carrying out the needs and functions of the family.

ATTITUDES AND ABILITIES

The over-all responsibility of the whole program is to develop social competence on the part of each individual. The achievement of such competence is a cumulative process, involving experiences and practice in social living at each level of maturity as the child progresses through school. The school's program should be directed toward developing the following abilities at the successive maturity levels of the child:

1. Development of confidence in himself and a sense of belonging in the group.

2. The development of a set of values, in harmony with the best of our democratic ideals, by which to guide his own behavior.

3. The ability to work independently and cooperatively in group play, work, school and community activities—with growing confidence, responsibility, and effectiveness.

the following Understandings and Appreciations, Attitudes and Abilities that are intended to be outcomes of this integrated social-living area: [10]

UNDERSTANDINGS AND APPRECIATIONS

1. A realization that living together in groups has been an experience and a problem of all mankind throughout the ages, and that man's efforts to improve his group living have developed the democratic idea by which we live today.

2. An understanding that man's past greatly influences life today. An appreciation of our national heritage, of those who made special contributions to it, and of how it affects our lives.

3. An understanding of the similarities of other peoples to ourselves. An appreciation of the fact that there are greater differences among people of the same race than proved differences between races. Since people are different, yet interdependent, it is important that each person have the freedom and the opportunity to develop his own innate capacities to their highest levels.

4. An appreciation of the beauties of the natural environment and a desire for beauty and order in one's own life and in group living; a realization that leisure can be used more richly and valuably through the enjoyment of one's natural environment, books, art, music, and other gifts which have been given us; that every individual has creative abilities which can contribute also to the enrichment of his leisure time.

5. An understanding that the elemental needs of food and protection by shelter and clothing are basic to all people no matter where they live or when they lived or what they do for a living.

6. An understanding that man lives in an environment in which the physical and social are inextricably interwoven; and that, though nature influences his ways of living, his environment has been modified and is constantly being modified through new ideas, through scientific thinking, and through inventions and machines.

7. An appreciation of the far-reaching consequences of the use of the scientific method—that man holds in his own hands the evolving power to construct and to destroy, and that it is his choice to determine how this power shall be used for constructive or destructive purposes.

8. An appreciation of man's unique capacity to consume and to destroy resources, to the possible detriment of present and future generations, and that one of man's greatest obligations is to conserve and to use human and natural resources constructively.

[10] *Ibid.,* pp. 128–130.

9. An appreciation of the dignity of humankind and of the relative well-being which man has developed through the application of his intelligence, effort, and cooperation to the problems of living; respect for and appreciation of workers of every type who contribute to our welfare, comfort, and security.

10. An appreciation of democracy as a way of life, and the understanding that it is a progressively developing function which is not yet fully achieved, neither in our nation nor in our world—that each person in a democracy has a responsibility in furthering and contributing to the progress of democratic living, in his immediate situation, in his community, his nation, and the world; that within a democratic society, initiative, competition, and cooperation have great values, so long as they exist within the rules of the group and of the social order.

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2. The development of a set of values, in harmony with the best of our democratic ideals, by which to guide his own behavior.

3. The ability to work independently and cooperatively in group play, work, school and community activities—with growing confidence, responsibility, and effectiveness.

4. The ability to think critically, through practice in discovering problems and solving them by scientific method.

5. Increasing growth in the ability to cope intelligently with the fact of change, adjusting ideas and behavior to developing situations, and participating effectively in bringing about new changes for the improvement of individual and group living.

6. The development of certain skills of gaining information, starting from simple use of them and working toward the more complex aspects.

a. Observing for specific purposes.

b. Constructing, taking apart, and putting together.

c. Gaining and interpreting information from printed materials.

d. Gaining information from interviews and field trips.

e. Gaining information from charts, graphs, and statistics; from globes, maps, time lines; and from other audio-visual aids.

f. Performing controlled experiments.

7. The development of certain skills in sharing information, moving from the simple to the complex.

a. Participating effectively in discussions for various purposes: to plan work in general, to select problems for group solving, to exchange ideas pertaining to the solving of a problem, to evaluate information, suggestions, ideas, and products of group or individual work, to arrive at tentative solutions of problems, to re-evaluate and revise solutions.

b. Reporting information, gained *individually*, to the group through well-planned oral reports; dramatizations; songs or dances; models; clear illustrations as maps, graphs, or time lines; and concise, well-worded written reports.

c. Feeling the satisfaction of *creating beautiful, as well as informa-tional*, communications through speech, writing, and dramatic and graphic representations.

d. Achieving an ever-richer and more functional vocabulary.

It is always interesting when studying proposed outcomes for integration movements to notice that they include outcomes for more areas than those immediately involved in the integration process. The most noticeable examples of this characteristic in the above illustration are the many outcomes, directly and by implication, for the language arts.

The Secondary Level. At the secondary level there are many plans of curriculum organization. It is occasionally difficult to interpret

professional articles and school philosophies because the authors do not take time to define their terminology. Consequently, before considering curriculum reorganization at the secondary level, it is necessary to offer definitions of the major types of curriculum organization. Douglass suggests the following definitions for some of the more popular curriculum plans: [11]

Integrated Curriculum: The combination or fusion of all subjects in a sequence of units centering around central themes or given topics which cut across several or all subjects, e.g., South America, involving history, science, social studies, arithmetic, geography, art, music, literature, speech, composition, etc., all related to South America and South Americans.

Core Curriculum: The instructional program for the common needs or at least a major part of it taught in close relationship as a whole; may involve or overlap one or more of the other concepts, e.g., fusion, integrated curriculum, and experience curriculum.

Fusion: The combining of all or nearly all of the materials of two or more subjects, not necessarily in the same broad field, on one or more grade levels, e.g., English and the social studies, mathematics and physics.

Broad Fields: The combination of two or more subjects of closely related fields, e.g., English journalism, and speech; general science; general social studies; arts and crafts; involves fusion with a broad field.

Experience Curriculum: A curriculum organized with a view to employing as far as possible the current normal life experiences of the learners as the fundamental criterion for the selection and organization of learning materials and activities.

In addition to the types of curriculum organization suggested above, Alberty suggests a type of organization he calls "Required and Elective Subjects." [12] This curriculum plan usually calls for standard, rigid minimum subject requirements plus offering the student permission to elect a specified number of subjects in order to meet the number of credit hours necessary for graduation. Quite frequently this is the type of curriculum found in departmentalized secondary schools. Many educators abhor this type of curriculum organization; but in defense of it, educators will often agree that if

[11] H. R. Douglass (ed.), *The High School Curriculum*, p. 46, The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1947.

[12] H. B. Alberty, *Reorganizing the High-school Curriculum*, p. 182, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947.

the departments have a great amount of breadth, from the standpoint of subject offerings, this is one of the best types of organization from which to launch a program of curriculum modernization.

The most important curriculum concept at the present time is that all the children of all the people have a right to a general education that will prepare them to live effectively in the modern democratic world. Specific content courses cannot entirely meet the demands of the general education program because this program is concerned with the development of competencies, attitudes, and emotions as well as with intellectual development. The development of salable skills is one of the "Imperative Needs of Youth," so general education *must include some consideration of the vocational fields, at least in* terms of discovering the abilities and interests of secondary-school youth.

Draper [18] reports that theorists in the field of general education have generally supported the following points of view:

1. That every child should find in the schools those materials and activities which will make him a better adjusted individual.

2. That these materials and activities are of such basic social significance that they will be educationally challenging to every pupil in the community and school if developed at his level of participation.

3. That teaching in general education emphasizes the class period as an opportunity for guiding and directing the interests and activities of children rather than assigning lessons, lecturing, and conducting recitations.

4. That evaluation is more concerned with the activities, actions, and attitudes of pupils than with examinations for the purpose of determining the degree of mastery of specific items of information.

It is obvious that the emphasis of general education is upon the whole individual and that the goal is to help him adjust effectively to life. Supervisors would be wise if they evaluated their current programs against a brief criterion developed from the preceding four points. The principal tenets of these four points have been *repeatedly* emphasized; at this point it might be well for the reader to reconsider the discussion of evaluation and of *integration as the process of* bringing "parts" together as "wholes."

[18] E. M. Draper, "Major Trends in Curriculum Organization," in Douglass, *op. cit.*, Chap. IX, pp. 193–194.

METHODS OF CURRICULUM REORGANIZATION

Just as it is impossible to consider trends in content without considering trends in objectives, it is impossible to consider either of these without considering methods of reorganization. Alberty [14] suggests five leading procedures in curriculum reorganization and with very little modification they will serve our purpose here.

1. The Textbook Procedure: The basic assumption underlying this procedure is that the textbook writer is the expert. It is for him to determine what shall be taught in a particular subject. The school pronounces judgement upon the work of the various experts, and selects the books best suited to their particular needs.

2. The Laissez-faire or Opportunistic Procedure: The choice of curriculum materials is largely left to the individual teacher who by some means or other finds out what ought to be done next, and then assembles the available resources, and tries, sometimes frantically, to secure other material from outside sources such as libraries and publishers.

3. The Activity-analysis Procedure: An analysis of human activity should be made in order to find out what activities people perform in the significant areas of human experience. [This method will be discussed following the presentation of procedure 5.]

4. The Social-functions Procedure: The various steps in the development of a social-functions curriculum . . . may be summarized as follows:

Formulate a philosophy of education, which should include an analysis of the various objectives which the school seeks to attain.

Decide upon the major areas of living, either by accepting a formulation worked out by others or as the result of research.

Discover the major problems, forces, or needs of society that belong to each area of living.

Make a study of the characteristics of adolescents at each level of development (or accept a formulation already made).

Upon the basis of (a) the objectives of education, (b) the areas of human activity, and (c) the characteristics of adolescents, decide upon appropriate centers of interest for each grade or age level.

Determine the type of curriculum organization.

Plan units of work related to the centers of interest and appropriate to the needs, interests, and abilities of the various groups, which are significant for attaining the objectives, and which orient the student in the major areas of human activity.

Set up a plan for evaluating the outcomes.

[14] *Op. cit.,* pp. 183–215.

5. The Adolescent-needs Approach to Curriculum Reorganization: The proponents of this concept hold that what is wrong with secondary education is that the curriculum has been dominated by the demands of the adult world. The remedy is to be found in a reversal of the whole procedure of curriculum making. The adolescent must be studied, his needs determined, and a curriculum designed to meet his needs must be provided.

Of the five methods or procedures listed above, the last three in their respective order have had a great amount of emphasis during the past thirty years. Methods 3 and 4 above are founded on common ground because they are based upon the activities and problems of adult living. The reader will recall that during the discussion of the objectives for education, Franklin Bobbitt [15] was established as the chief proponent of the activity-analysis method. Bobbitt's statement that "education is to prepare men and women for the activities of every kind which make up, or ought to make up, well rounded adult life," is very significant at this point.

The apparent antithesis of the activity-analysis method is the approach in which the needs of adolescents are analyzed and the curriculum designed to meet these needs. The basic problem apparently is centered around the question: Should education prepare for the present or for the future? Actually an adolescent's life, from the standpoint of his life's needs, cannot be sharply divided into present and future. For example, if the needs of adolescents are analyzed, one obvious need is to prepare for effective living in the years following school. During these years a certain percentage of youth will have further school experiences, but all must eventually prepare for the years beyond school. This need is pointed up by much of the research into the general education programs and the methods of group dynamics at the secondary level. The years following school are adult years, and if we are to know what it is we are preparing youth for, we obviously must analyze the activities of those years. On the other hand we know that adolescents in our modern world have many problems that must be met in the present.

What is the solution to this apparently insoluble situation? The solution is partially found in the truth that most propositions that apply to human beings are seldom either-or propositions, one thing

[15] F. Bobbitt. *How to Make a Curriculum*, p. 7, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1924.

or the other. Consequently, the objective approach is to build the curriculum upon a base of current adolescent needs plus needs revealed by an analysis of adult activities; by employing this method the two procedures should tend to strengthen each other.

Regardless which method is employed, adolescent needs, adult activity analysis, or both, we will probably end up with a curriculum that, to a large extent, disregards traditional subject-matter boundary lines. It is interesting to note the following statement made by Bobbitt [16] almost thirty years ago:

In the curriculum-making, he [the principal] is in the position of the director of an orchestra who must coordinate all of the parts in the making of one harmonious whole. Lacking this leadership and coordination, the initiative on the part of the teachers but results in disintegration and incoordination on the part of the several relatively autonomous and irresponsible departments.

It is a known fact that the proponents of designing curriculums to meet adolescent needs are very willing to disregard subject-matter lines. If subject-matter lines are to be disregarded, there should be a good reason for the disregard; the quotation seems to indicate that the chief proponent of adult activity analysis was willing to cross subject-matter lines if to cross them would provide a better curriculum.

A final word of advice to supervisors is in order at this point. First, a supervisor and his teachers should not take "secondhand" curriculum suggestions; for their school situation, they should do the thinking, evaluation, and make the recommendations to the administrators for final decision. Second, a change should never be made for a transient reason; the current status is usually better than a change in the wrong direction.

SUMMARY

Educators have criticized the general nature of the curriculum in most of our elementary and secondary schools. The very important curriculum problem has its origin in the conditions and practices of our society as revealed by the needs of our people.

A curriculum can be improved only when the improvement is based upon accurate information concerning the nature of growth

[16] *Ibid.*, p. 280.

and learning. The supervisor who attempts to improve the curriculum must first be assured that the teachers with whom he works are adequately informed about the nature of growth and learning.

Supervisors should constantly study trends in curriculum content, objectives, organization, and methods of reorganization. Ours is a world of change and motion, and it must be continually inventoried if supervisors are to have adequate information to determine necessary curriculum changes. A curriculum change should never be made for a transient reason, and it is well to remember that the current curriculum status is probably better than a change in the wrong direction.

Chapter 9. STUDYING THE COMMUNITY

The influence of the community upon the program for the improvement of the educational process is a phase of supervision that is frequently neglected. This influence can be positive educationally when it is guided, as it should be, by the professional educators in the community. The influence can be negative when it represents attempts by community groups to establish selfish goals as educational policy.

A community is always more than a mere concentration of people in one place. It is always a concentration of people who are split into various factions because of such things as political and religious allegiances and at the same time bound together by certain philosophical and legal ties in order to preserve a common way of life.

The basis for a successful school-community relationship is organized educational leadership. The ultimate goal of this leadership is to provide an ever-better environment in which to meet the educational needs of the individuals in the community. The chief executive officer of any school system is the person directly responsible for the school-community program of public relations. Thus, in the state as a whole, the state superintendent of public instruction is responsible, in the county, the county superintendent is responsible, and so on, until we consider a particular school community in which the principal of the school is responsible.

Before any administrator initiates an active program of organized educational leadership, he should analyze his community. If he fails to do this, he runs a real danger of alienating powerful influences in his community that may negate all attempts dedicated to the improvement of the educational process.

THE SUPERVISOR EVALUATES EDUCATIONAL INFLUENCES IN THE COMMUNITY

A community is a concentration of people who are split into various factions because of such things as business, political, and religious

allegiances and at the same time bound together by certain philosophical ties in order to preserve a common way of life. This being true, one of the first tasks of the supervisor is to identify community influences and then to determine whose purposes the schools are fulfilling. The Lynds [1] state the problem in the following manner in their discussion of Middletown's program for training the young:

> There is conflict over the question of whose purpose the schools are supposedly fulfilling: Are these purposes those of the parent who wants education for *his* child in order that, through the acquisition of certain skills and knowledge, or more important, certain symbolic labels of an "educated person," he may achieve a larger measure of success than the parent himself has known? Or are they those of the citizen who wants, on the one hand, to have the fundamentals of community life, including its politico-economic mores, transmitted unchanged, and, on the other, to use the schools as an instrument of change sufficiently to bring any alien or backward children in the community up to these familiar standards? Or those of the teacher, with ideas derived from outside Middletown, loyal to a code of his own and obeying its philosophy? Or those of the taxpayers, businessmen, and school board members, whose chief emphasis is on "successful" and "progressive" schools, to be sure, but within the limits of a practical, sound, unextravagant budget? Or are they the purposes of any one of the pressure groups who want to teach the children patriotism, health, thrift, character building, religion,—or any one of the other values more or less accepted by the community as a whole but become an emotionally weighted "cause" with one special group?

Each pupil has imperative needs that must be met if he is to make an adequate life adjustment. The problem which the school (represented by the supervisor) faces is that many individuals or organizations are perfectly willing, as long as the cost is not excessive, for the school to plan a curriculum that objectively meets nine of the imperative needs, but they want to influence the way the tenth need is met. The supervisor must identify each influential person and organization in order to screen carefully their attempts to insert subjective techniques or information into the curriculum that must be objectively conceived for training youth.

[1] R. S. Lynd and H. M. Lynd, *Middletown in Transition*, p. 232, Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1937.

The Nature of Influence. The problem of individual or group *influence*, and the extent of this influence, will vary from community to community. In small communities the influence to force an issue of general concern one way or the other may be exerted by an individual, for example, a newspaper editor, a large landowner, a prominent physician, etc. In larger communities powerful individuals still exert a great amount of influence, but there are added factors of which we are all aware, for example, labor or industrial organizations, business and professional groups, political party machines, large church groups, etc. When influence is controlled by one individual in a small community, his pattern of action can be studied, and if it is impossible to cooperate with him, an area that needs improvement can usually be found in which he displays little or no interest. The problem in the larger communities, in which influence is maintained by highly developed organizations, is vastly different. To begin with, organizations such as those mentioned above are usually of a national character and usually able to avoid strict control. Being of an interstate nature, these organizations are extremely more powerful than any one individual could ever aspire to be. Also due to their interstate nature, these organizations can be inclined to be negligent of the desires of a single community.

The Supervisor's Attitude toward Influence. In the United States, public education is basically state controlled. Within each state the control of education is broken down until, operating in accord with the state educational legal provisions, local communities under various names—county, district, city, etc.—are responsible for the maintenance of an educational program. At the local level the superintendent directs the program of school-community relationships. Obviously this task is too large and important for one individual to handle, so the wise superintendent enlists the aid of all teachers in the program of school-community relationships and depends on his principals and supervisors to provide the leadership at the local school-community or neighborhood level.

Educators are so conscious of community influences upon education that they occasionally overlook the fact that public education is also a powerful community influence. Public-school teachers are proud members of the nation's most important profession, but they

do not usually employ the mass methods of exerting their influence that are employed by other large professional and nonprofessional organizations. Part of the influence of the teaching profession stems from the fact that, despite the many grievances it might have, its members seldom sacrifice the educational needs of America's children in order to settle these grievances. This statement does not mean that teachers are necessarily "better" than other people; it does mean that the material, boys and girls, with which teachers work is so valuable that it cannot be neglected even for a day in order to settle some man-made grievance.

If the supervisor is imbued with the desire to direct and help his teachers so that more effective educational services can be offered to the youth of a community, there are three approaches he can use in dealing with community influences:

1. *The negative approach.* In this approach the supervisor identifies the influential people or organizations in his community, blanches, and does nothing to improve the educational process or the community. This supervisor may be literally bursting with excellent educational ideas, but due to his inexperience or lack of courage, he will content himself with reporting them in educational journals.

2. *The ultrapositive approach.* In this approach the supervisor identifies the influential people or organizations in his community, "thumps his chest," and makes an unplanned frontal assault on all entrenched influences. This type of individual will accomplish nothing for the improvement of the educational process or the community. Individuals of this type are usually dictatorial; consequently they expect everyone to *respect them but in return they respect no one.* Fortunately the individual who employs this approach will soon be discharged from or demoted in public-school service.

3. *The objective approach.* In this approach the supervisor identifies the influential people or organizations in his community and studies their interests and methods of operation. The supervisor also studies the areas of need in the community. When he thoroughly understands the source of influence in the community, he selects an area needing improvement that lies outside the direct interest of the influential person or organization. Following a process of careful planning, the supervisor stimulates improvement in this area. It is important for the supervisor to select an area in which his initial chance for success is almost a surety.

Following his initial success, the supervisor again studies the com-

munity situation and plans to select another area for improvement. It is essential that the program be built upon a series of successes because eventually the supervisor must select an area in which an individual or organization will have a direct interest. Under these circumstances the supervisor, who is a professional employee of the school system, must have a background of successful experiences with which to substantiate the program he is building.

METHODS OF COMMUNITY ANALYSIS

In the previous section a statement was made to the effect that it is relatively easy to discern the outward framework of community influences as represented by organizations or individuals. To understand the reasons for the origin, extent, and method of operation of the community influences is quite another matter involving a careful study of the entire community. Many survey techniques have been developed for the purpose of identifying or analyzing community influence. Hollingshead [2] reports, in the second chapter of *Elmtown's Youth*, the very extensive methodology employed in the survey of a selected Midwestern city. An exhaustive study of this type would reveal valuable information for the educational personnel of any school district. It is, however, extremely doubtful if many school districts would attempt such an exhaustive study following an initial decision to discover the sociological forces operating in their school districts. Consequently, it is recommended that educational leaders who are interested in surveys of this type first use a more simplified method of studying their communities. The more simplified techniques will not be as thorough but they will be adequate to introduce the supervisor to the process of community study.

Three examples will serve to illustrate types of simplified techniques that will stimulate teachers, supervisors, and administrators to community study. Olsen [3] has devised a check list for teachers to use in appraising their fitness to work in a community-centered program of education. As an example, a portion of this list is presented on the following page:

[2] A. B. Hollingshead, *Elmtown's Youth*, Chap. 2, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1949.

[3] E. G. Olsen *et al.*, *School and Community*, p. 399, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1945.

APPRAISING MY FITNESS FOR WORK IN A COMMUNITY-CENTERED PROGRAM OF EDUCATION

DIRECTIONS TO THE TEACHER: How well are you fitted for work in a school which is closely related to the life of its community? The following check list will help you determine the extent to which you have developed the social and civic competence which such teaching requires of you. Indicate the degree of growth you think you have achieved by placing an X in the appropriate column opposite each item. Remember that you should evaluate yourself in terms of your *actual behavior in life situations*, not merely in terms of your present ideals.

Viewing myself objectively, I think I have achieved

This degree of learning				In this area of learning
Much	Some	Little	None	

I. A Realistic Approach to the Study of Human Relations.
  1.1. Understanding the community-school movement and its significance for democratic education and the conscious improvement of human living.
  1.2. Comprehending life in various types of communities with regard to such fundamental factors as:
    (a) The land and its resources.
    (b) The people.
    (c) Utilizing natural environment.
    (d) Appreciating the past.
    (e) Adjusting to people.
    (f) Exchanging ideas.
    (g) Making a living.
    (h) Sharing in citizenship.
    (i) Maintaining health and safety.
    (j) Improving family living.
    (k) Securing education.
    (l) Meeting religious needs.
    (m) Enjoying beauty.
    (n) Engaging in recreation.
  1.3. Understanding social forces at work in the community:
    (a) Caste and class.
    (b) In-group and out-group relationships.
    (c) Pressure groups and propaganda.
    (d) Democratic leadership and cooperation.

This very interesting list continues with the following three main subdivisions: Effective Thinking and Research in the Social Area; Social Participation and Social Action; Cooperative Living.

What people do is to a great extent determined by the characteristics of the community and the characteristic actions of the people in the community in which they are reared. Education is a continuous process, in school and out. Therefore, the supervisor who wants the educational process to be ever more effective will seek to identify

the community forces which will contribute to, or distract from, the school's educational program.

In all school communities there appear to be certain constants present that in some way affect the operation of the schools. If these constants are identified and evaluated, for any one community, by an impartial group of educators, the supervisors and administrators in that community will have a more objective basis on which to consider the relative importance of the presence or absence of the constants. In an attempt to help local administrators and supervisors quickly and more objectively identify selected elements in their respective communities, the following inventory,[4] represented at this point by its main divisional titles, has been developed:

A PUBLIC SCHOOL-COMMUNITY INVENTORY
(FACTORS AFFECTING THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM)

Public School Administrators are confronted with the problem of fitting the educational program to the needs of each individual child and also to the needs of the community. The first step in adjusting the educational program to the community needs is to study the factors in the community which can exert a measured influence on the program. When these factors have been studied, the administrators and their staffs are in an objective position to evaluate their present educational program and to make recommendations for change.

Since the community and students are constantly changing, the educational program must also change. One method of determining the nature of changing factors in the community is to maintain a continuous community inventory. The accompanying form is an example of such an inventory. It is so constructed that administrators will find it easy to use. Ease of application and understanding rather than definitive completeness have been the qualities an item must possess in order to be included in this inventory.

The inventory has been kept at a minimum size in order to stimulate its extensive use by all. The inventory consists of the following eleven parts:

1. Geographical setting.
2. Population background.
3. Population.

4 C. T. McNerney and N. E. Norman, *Public School-Community Inventory*, The Pennsylvania State College, Department of Education, 1950.

4. Income groups.
5. Transportation.
6. Communication.
7. Occupations.
8. Religion.
9. Education.
10. Recreational facilities.
11. Organized groups.

The main divisional titles of the inventory are broken into a number of subgroups. To facilitate its use the inventory has been constructed as a check list and in part as a check and evaluation list. For example, subdivision number 9, Education, contains many items, one of which is "Elementary Schools" (number of). Following this item, the user of the inventory will find a sliding scale on which to check the number of elementary schools in the school district, and following this scale, an evaluation scale on which the user can check his judgment of the adequacy with which the educational goals of the community can be met with this number of schools available.

To illustrate:

	Multiplier	Number	Evaluation[1]
		0 1 2 3 ------------10	
IX. Education			
Public			
Elementary Schools	*10*	|||4	1 ② 3

To interpret, in this particular school district there are thirty elementary schools. In the judgment of the user of this inventory, the number of elementary schools should be increased if the educational goals of the community are to be attained, but the shortage of school space is not so acute that the condition should be classified as critical.

An instrument of this type is obviously not completely objective or entirely definite. The purpose of an instrument of this type is twofold: First, it will provide school leaders an overview of the extent to which selected, important sociological conditions exist in their school districts. Second, the use of an inventory instrument

such as this should stimulate educational leaders to become interested in sponsoring a thorough sociological analysis of their community.

Learning experiences are provided by the total environment, not just the school environment. Due to the fact that boys and girls learn through all their experiences, a good community will provide many out-of-school learning experiences for its children. It is often difficult to estimate the scope of experiences a community should provide because the composition of many communities changes quite frequently. The community with many children today may, due to migration, maturation, etc., have fewer children tomorrow. The community whose prosperity is basically dependent on one industry may overuse its facilities one school year and, due to fluctuations in consumer demands which cause the industry to expand and contract, find itself with an overabundance of facilities the next year. An increased birth rate may cause a general increase in the youth population of all communities.

Regardless of the cause for the expansion or contraction of the youth population, the community's educational supervisors should maintain a continuous inventory of the educational opportunities provided by the community. An inventory such as the one on page 204 will answer some of these questions for supervisors. How can we get the homes to develop a feeling of security within each child; provide consistently for the things which make for maximum physical development, *e.g.*, adequate rest, balanced meals, opportunity for stimulating play; utilize community resources to enrich their experiential backgrounds; understand the relationship between emotional, mental, and physical development?

THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

During the discussion up to this point attention has been centered on the necessity of the supervisor's understanding the community before attempting to plan an educational program with his teachers. Youth encounters educational experiences both in and out of school. Consequently, in order to avoid unnecessary duplication between school and out-of-school experiences, and to provide youth the opportunity to have a continuous series of experiences that are educational, the school-community relationship must be developed.

EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES PROVIDED FOR CHILDREN IN THE COMMUNITY *

Items

	Yes	No
I. Do children have opportunities to participate in church activities?	___	___
II. Does the community provide appropriate clubs to which children may belong?	___	___
III. Do children have opportunities to evaluate motion pictures?	___	___
IV. Do children have opportunities to enjoy other types of entertainment, *e.g.*,		
1. Plays?	___	___
2. Operas?	___	___
3. Etc.	___	___
V. Does the community provide a public playground for children?	___	___
1. If answer is yes, does the playground have competent instructors and supervisors?	___	___
2. Which of the following types of equipment are available to all children		
Swings?	___	___
Slides?	___	___
Etc.	___	___
3. Do the playgrounds provide space where boys and girls can play organized games adapted to their age levels and ability?	___	___
4. Are competent instructors available for such games?	___	___
VI. Does the community provide opportunities for excursions to, *e.g.*,		
1. Zoos?	___	___
2. Factories?	___	___
3. Airports?	___	___
VII. Does the community provide recreation areas for children and their parents?	___	___
VIII. Does the community provide a library?	___	___
1. Is the library staffed with competent librarians?	___	___
2. Does the library provide a "storyteller" for the children?	___	___
IX. Does the industry in the community provide work-experience opportunity for boys and girls?	___	___
X. Do parents of children have opportunities to be members of organizations that have an effect on the happiness and welfare of children, *e.g.*,		
1. Rotary?	___	___
2. Lions?	___	___
3. Grange?	___	___
4. Etc.	___	___

* This check list has been prepared for use with this material. It is an attempt to set forth some major areas of community-sponsored activities that are educational, *e.g.*, youth clubs, playgrounds, and Grange activities for youth. The supervisors in any school district could alter or expand these major headings to fit the characteristics of their community.

When a situation is found in which the school-community relationship is very close, the school is usually referred to as a community school. This close cooperative arrangement usually possesses the following basic characteristics:

First, the community is informed of the objectives of the school. The people support the school with money and by faith. It is the democratic educational responsibility of the communities' educational leaders to develop the school's objectives with the community members. This does not mean that each person in the community will necessarily know the specific aims that each teacher intends to accomplish in his classroom; however, if a parent visits a teacher, it would be well to discuss the specific aims with him. The statement does mean, that the school and community have cooperatively developed some common goals which they want their youth to attain, and parents, other community members, and the educational personnel are cooperating in school and out to help the youth gain these goals.

Second, the school is utilizing many community resources in order to enrich the educational experiences for its youth. If community resources are to be used to a maximum advantage, someone must be assigned the responsibility for maintaining an up-to-date inventory of them. This inventory will include many items, for example, industrial field trips, available youth clubs, service clubs, historical societies, literary societies, recreational areas, etc. It has been stated before that if youth become actively interested in a community they can become a powerful force in community improvement. When all the resources of a community can be used as curriculum experiences, the educational needs of an increasing number of students can be more adequately met by associating them with a direct experience.

Third, in the community school there is ample evidence that the community is using the school facilities. For many years we have wasted an unestimated number of adult and youth educational hours by closing our schools early in the afternoon and during the summer months. The public that supports the schools has been denied the use of auditoriums, gymnasiums, shops, swimming pools, art studios, home economics laboratories, audio-visual equipment, etc. Many schools do not have enough staff to supervise the use of such equipment during the afternoons, evenings, and summers. In addition, we would all consider the administrator to be grossly inefficient if he

permitted this equipment to be used without supervision. However, in the days ahead it is to be recommended that joint commissions of school and community members be formed to plan the wisest all-around use of the school plant and equipment. As new school buildings are designed it is to be recommended that they contain, especially at the elementary level, an adequate amount of adult-size equipment.

Fourth, the community is informed of the needs of the school. The more the community uses the facilities in the school the better it is informed about the needs of the school. When a community organization uses a primary schoolroom for an evening meeting and the members are required to sit on child-size furniture, it is not difficult to convince the organization that the school needs adult-size furniture for parent meetings and parent-teacher meetings. When a father uses a power machine in the school shop and finds it unequipped with the safety devices that are required on the machines in the factory at which he works, it does not take him long to become an agitator for safety devices. Example after example of this type could be developed but the two that are presented should be sufficient to illustrate the point.

Because of existing emergencies in our schools, it is of vital importance for all educational personnel to cooperate with their administrators and supervisors in an "all out" attempt to take the schools to the public and to bring the public to the schools. All over America, communities are faced not only with the necessity of modernizing and maintaining existing school buildings but also with the task of promoting enough money to provide new schoolrooms and buildings to accommodate the increasing percentage of school enrollment and the extra millions of children born during and immediately after the war years. This terrific building expense must be added to increases in teachers' salaries and to the general rise of costs in all areas. Only through the taxing power of the government, local, state, or national, can the money be obtained to meet the necessary tremendous expenditures. Eventually taxes must be translated into terms of the individual community members. If we wish to maintain the faith these people have demonstrated in public education, we must go to them with an ever-expanding and increasingly effective program of education in which they are an integral part.

The Cumberland Mountain School.[5] Fleming describes a meeting held in a new school in the Cumberland Mountains of Tennessee. The article provides such an excellent example of a developing, wholesome school-community relationship that it is reproduced in part at this point. This school offers the people of this community a new opportunity to work together and attack common problems.

The new building is a modernistic, red brick, attractive building. As one proceeds up the mountain road, he suddenly turns a bend and observes a conspicuous, beautiful structure in the middle of a thick pine forest. It is such a contrast to other features of the community that one is almost startled by the implications of such a school building in such a setting.

Earlier in the morning a group of some twenty county leaders had assembled in Pikeville to plan a community meeting to be held in this school. There was a doctor, the sanitarian, the banker, the welfare representative, the county farm agent, the school board, and others. After attention was given to the mores of the people, to the poverty, disease, lack of morale, lack of community spirit, lack of leadership in the community, one major principle seemed evident—"Let the people plan their program!"

Upon arriving at the school in the afternoon this principle seemed fitting. There were 150 mountain folk present. They were a good, genuine, shy, hesitant, awkward, retiring, modest, embarrassed lot. They stood around in small groups. The women held their infants, while other children stood by, often hiding behind their mothers' skirts. There were mothers nursing their young, and children crying throughout the building. One could not help but observe health problems, nutritional deficiencies, lack of teeth, poverty, lack of enthusiasm, lack of a content and serene spirit. Their dress represented an era of several generations of the past. The men were clad in work clothes; they were unshaven; they had a "hard, cold," indifferent expression on their faces.

This group had been brought together to plan ways of improving their school and their community. The principal had them assemble in the gymnasium and seated them in an informal manner in two huge concentric circles. He opened the meeting by roaming around the circles greeting people and talking with them. Typical of his remarks were— "Howdy, Miss Jane, how are you?" "It's good to see you, Mr. Joe." "How do you like our building?" "How are your folks?"

The smiling informality of the principal communicated itself to the group in spite of the presence of strangers. Then he went into a second phase of his questioning by asking—"What should we do here this afternoon? It is your meeting." This question brought an instant reply in a loud, rather tense manner, "Let's name the building." Numerous spontaneous responses came, among them: "Let's name it the Dill School." "Let's name it the Cumberland Mountain School!"

The principal smiled and took his time as he continued to roam around among the people and repeat his questions. Yet, no other items were mentioned other than naming the school. It soon became evident that to the people this was their first concern. Some members of each of the four communities which had been consolidated seemed to want to retain the school's former name. Another group wanted to call it the "Cumberland Mountain School."

Finally, as the group seemed unable to make any concessions, a young father dressed in an ex-army uniform spoke out harshly and asked, "Why shouldn't the children help name the building!" This seemed to soften many people in the group. At once individuals began making suggestions as to ways in which children could participate. Finally, a plan was agreed upon whereby children would suggest possible names for the school and submit them to a community meeting on a particular night. Parents likewise were to suggest names and both groups were to vote on a name. This decision brought spontaneous, loud and boisterous applause. There was laughter and a spirit of happiness and pleasure. The tension had been removed.

Slowly and with good humor the principal again asked, "Now what should we do this afternoon?" A real desire to cooperate with each other became evident as they discussed four major problems or jobs.

1. "Let's improve the school grounds; they are muddy; there is no grass; we can sod it!"
2. "Let's organize a parent-teacher group and have regular meetings."
3. "Why can't we have some community recreation?" (A pie supper, talent show, moving picture show were mentioned.)
4. "Let's develop a hot lunch program for the children."

Following the initial meeting, plans were made for another meeting to proceed with naming the school. The items suggested for group work certainly cannot be classified as complex school problems, but the important fact is that *they are problems of the expanded community group.*[6] Under the competent supervision of the

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[6] The building of this school consolidated four previously separated school communities, each of which had been served by a one-room school.

school's principal, the various elements of this combined group will learn to work together and will realize the power that is inherent in a combined effort.

Community-School Relationships. The emphasis in the preceding section was upon the *school-community* relationship. The apparent implication was that the school should be the initiator of this relationship. Actually the relationship can be initiated by either a member of the school faculty, a professional or nonprofessional member of some other community agency, or by a lay community member. For example, the Ten Point Program which follows could well be initiated by a city recreational director who may be well-trained but may or may not have a direct association with the school system.

TEN POINT PROGRAM FOR DEVELOPING A COMMUNITY RECREATION
PROGRAM FOR YOUNG PEOPLE [1]

1. Plan for the whole community—reach all children.
2. Let youth participate [in the planning].
3. Allocate responsibility for providing services.
4. Find capable leadership.
5. Secure community support.
6. Strengthen existing services.
7. Use school and church facilities.
8. Diversify teen-age activities.
9. Develop new play spaces.
10. Develop neighborhood activities.

Actually this is a list of guiding principles for developing a program. This plan is community-wide but it incorporates the localization of neighborhood activities. The plan recommends the allocation of responsibility, the use of existing facilities, leadership, and the diversification of activities. In other words, this plan possesses the major elements that need to be recommended for any school-community or community-school plan of cooperation aimed at providing a continuous, positive educational program for youth.

SUMMARY

Modern supervisors must not neglect to study the influence of the community upon the program for the improvement of the educa-

[1] Recreation Division, Office of Community War Services, Federal Security Agency.

tional process. If school pupils are to have the opportunity for continuous experiences, in school and out, of an educational nature, there must be close cooperation between the school and community.

The supervisor shares with the administrator the responsibility for interpreting the schools to the community and the community to the teachers. To do this successfully the supervisor and his teachers must first employ objective techniques to analyze the community and their competency to work with the community. Eventually all school communities should be thoroughly analyzed, but to develop readiness for this type of analysis, the supervisors and administrators should first use more simplified techniques.

In all communities the supervisor will encounter power influences in the form of individuals or organizations. These influences will almost inevitably attempt to influence the manner in which the supervisor and his teachers plan to meet one or more of the imperative needs of youth. At all times the supervisor must be objective as he works with these influences, and under no circumstances must he permit bias in any form to be introduced into the subject matter of the curriculum or the techniques that are used to implement it.

When the school-community relationship is particularly close, the school is frequently designated to be a community school. Such a school will be characterized by a program that incorporates representatives of all human elements in the community into its planning and operation.

Chapter 10. ACCOUNTING TO THE PUBLIC

Democracy as a mode of living exists only as it is reflected in each of us through our attitudes, values, and behavior in all that we do. Professional public-school personnel cannot live apart from the public they serve. As professional educators, their accepted task in the organization of the work of the world is to provide their communities with educational leadership and a program of educational experiences that will help all individuals live more competently in the world as we know it.

The general public has a tremendous investment of confidence and money in its public schools. The public has a right to demand an accounting from its professional educators; it has a right to know what the trends are in education and why they are what they are.

Unfortunately a substantial part of the public has ceased to ask for an accounting. Occasionally one hears or reads about a parents' organization that has requested a school superintendent to account for a particular type of program that he has caused to be instituted. More often one reads or hears about irate parents who are challenging the school's rights to do whatever it happens to be doing to their beloved offspring. This dismal picture could be painted in great detail, and many of us would be forced to stand "shamefaced" before it.

The real issue in this matter is the fact that professional educators should be going to the public with an account of their work. They should realize that an uninformed public is a liability to educational advancement. They should realize that the public needs to know about the successes and failures that the present educational program is experiencing as well as about changes that are being considered in order to improve the program.

We have accepted as fact the theory that growth is a continuous process. Following this acceptance, we have to a large extent forgotten that boys and girls are out of school for a longer period of time than they are in it, but growth goes on continually. If we are to achieve

the maximum results for our educational endeavors, we must try to influence those who determine the out-of-school program to harmonize it as much as possible with the school program. If this is to be accomplished, both sides may be forced to make adaptations. These adaptations will never become final and it is not desirable that they should. Supervisors must function as leaders of this educational policy and must steer it so that it will be geared to the rate of advancement that the community is capable of making. When the community thinking and action have attained the educational goals established by its professional educators, new goals must be established; educational stagnation or revolution would result from any other philosophy.

Supervisors should not recommend changes for trivial or transient reasons. The major needs of education do not vary greatly from year to year. It is desirable that educational progress should be evolutionary rather than abruptly revolutionary; this is the nature of growth.

SUPERVISORS AND PUBLIC RELATIONS

The people of America have a very extraordinary faith in public education. Our venture in public education could not have succeeded without this support through faith. It is a mere truism to state that our schools can be no stronger than the people desire them to be. So much is dependent on our present public educational program that it is almost a truism to say that our country can be no stronger than its public schools.

Our schools, democratically created and democratically administered, must work closely with the people in the communities which they serve. The educational leaders must completely account to the public for all school business and must attempt to coordinate the schools' planned educational experiences with the educational experiences planned by the community. To accomplish this task the educational leaders must build a sound program of public relations.

Public-relations activities occur on many fronts. On the state, county, city, or district basis the superintendent is responsible for public relations, but on the community basis the principals, supervisors, and teachers are responsible. Obviously the public-relations program must eventually be coordinated by the superintendent, but it must never be standardized for all communities. In large counties,

districts, and cities many diverse population elements may be present, and each element may need a different type of relation with the school. It is a function of the supervisor to study the population element or elements that compose a school community and to interpret these elements to the teachers and the school to them.

The function of any school public-relations program is to establish understanding between the school and the community it serves and upon whose support it depends. There can be no established set of rules to follow in order to maintain an effective public-relations program because the entire program is built upon people, and each person is a variable. While there are no rules for an effective public-relations program, there are certain principles to follow that will tend to keep any program from becoming haphazard. The following set of principles was developed for the Twenty-eighth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators: [1]

Do you—

Regard public relations as a two-way process—as a cooperative search for mutual understanding and effective teamwork between community and school?

Keep in mind the fact that there are many "publics"?

Seek to establish favorable attitudes as well as opinions, and take into account the influence of both emotions and intellect?

Check the accuracy and honesty of interpretation of the information which goes out about the schools?

Derive your public relations program from the day to day work of the schools?

Maintain a continuous program of interpretation and cooperation?

Emphasize the positive approach in public relations?

Have a comprehensive and well balanced program of public relations?

Know and serve the interests of the various publics in your community?

Present your ideas in simple, understandable, yet accurate form?

It must be remembered that these principles do not represent "magic answers" to the public-relations problem. The supervisor must be a dealer in facts and must realize that most people confuse belief with fact. If people believe a thing to be true, they almost unconsciously discount any conflicting evidence that is contrary to their belief. The public will believe *something* about the schools,

[1] *Public Relations for America's Schools,* p. 10, The American Association of School Administrators, Twenty-eighth Yearbook, Washington, D.C., 1950.

and if the educators do not establish a functional public-relations program, the public is just as apt to believe fiction as truth.

A specific word about the supervisor may be helpful at this point. It has repeatedly been advocated in this text that the supervisor is the interpreter of the school for the community. He must study the community in order to understand the youth and adult needs and problems. When an understanding of the needs and problems has been developed, it is the supervisor's task to establish ways and means for youth and adults to have the types of experiences that will enable them to solve their problems. As a liaison official between administration, teachers, youth, and community members, the supervisor must promote the adaptation of all school experiences to the economical possibilities and the philosophical attitudes of the administration and school board representing the educational will of the people.

SUPERVISORS, SCHOOL CHILDREN, AND PUBLIC RELATIONS

School children are the school's most effective public-relations agents. If a child places his stamp of approval on the school, in all probability his parents will also approve of the school. From the very beginning the school should have definite and worth-while objectives to guide its attempt to promote methods of learning that are consistent with the principles of democracy. The school must always provide a challenging and stimulating environment to provide for the needs of all pupils, regardless of their level of ability. The home, community, and school must cooperate if a continuous in-school and out-of-school program of learning experiences is to be provided for pupils.

As a group, teachers have as their basic concern the progress of the students toward the objectives for education. There exists a tremendous volume of educational literature devoted to methods of motivating the students to do an ever-better job, to have a greater abundance of challenging experiences. Supervisors are aware of the fact that teachers at school can only do so much for the students, and in a majority of instances, the students are probably working close to their peak of efficiency. If students, teachers, and supervisors are to do more, they must be relieved of the out-of-school environmental limitations that now surround them.

In an attempt to stimulate the removal of the environmental limi-

tations both in and out of school, parents, students, and supervisors are requested to alter environmental conditions in such a manner that the following questions can be answered affirmatively:

1. Has the child's school environment been recently analyzed to determine if it is in any way impeding the child's educational progress?

2. Has the child's home environment been recently analyzed to determine if it is in any way impeding the child's educational progress?

3. At home, does the child have the opportunity to participate in solving actual problems related to individual and family living?

4. At home, does the child have the opportunity to experience work with peers and adults?

5. Does a feeling of friendliness exist throughout the child's home neighborhood?

6. Does the home provide the child with opportunities to recognize the qualities that all people have in common?

7. Does the home provide the child with opportunities to evaluate the effectiveness of cooperative group action?

8. At home, does the child have the opportunity to participate in the formulation of plans for real action?

9. At home, does the child live in a social environment?

10. At home, does the child have ample opportunity to develop an appreciation of the fact that all individuals are important?

Question 1 involves the school in its context. If this question can be answered affirmatively, and if unwholesome, impeding conditions revealed by the analysis are removed, then the greater part of the child's problem will exist outside the school. When this condition prevails, supervisors must stimulate their teachers to join them in a program of community education if they want to avoid an ever-increasing amount of frustration in their classrooms.

It is always possible for supervisors and their teachers to assemble a picture of a child's school life. It is much more difficult to assemble a picture of the child's home life, but this very necessary task must be performed if a planned program of continuous, positive educational experiences are to be the right of every child. Some parents may resent the school's effort to assemble a picture of the child's home life. To avoid this resentment, the wise supervisor will use many mediums to convince the parents of the necessity for studying the child's complete environment if a continuous, coordinated program of education is to be planned for him. It is recommended that reports

of the following type should become a part of every child's cumulative record: [2]

Dear Parents:

We are trying at school, as you are in the home, to provide a continuous program of educational experiences for your children. In order to perform school tasks more effectively we request you to complete the following form and return it to the school. We hope you will answer all the questions but feel free to leave out any part or all of them. If you do not understand the questions please confer with your child's teacher.

Part One

Do the parents do the following:

	Yes	No
1. Provide the children with an adequate amount of affection by repeatedly showing them that they are loved by all members of the family?	___	___
2. Provide the children with evidence that the husband-wife relationship is founded on love?	___	___
3. Compliment each child when he has successfully fulfilled an obligation or performed an unusual or difficult task?	___	___
4. Continually scold each child about some habit or shortcoming?	___	___
5. Encourage the children to have		
Pets?	___	___
Plant gardens?	___	___
Etc.	___	___
6. Frequently plan recreational activities that can be enjoyed by both parents and children?	___	___
7. Encourage the members of the family to solve their differences through family discussion and action?	___	___
8. Objectively respond to questions about		
Social customs?	___	___
Religious practices?	___	___
Dating?	___	___
Sex?	___	___
Etc.	___	___
9. Maintain a budget in line with their financial resources?	___	___
10. Save money according to a prearranged plan?	___	___
11. Provide, through an insurance program, security in time of illness or for the period following the death of one or more parents?	___	___

[2] This check list was prepared for use with this material. It is suggestive rather than complete, and represents several major areas of home life about which the supervisors and teachers will need information in order to plan adequate curriculum experiences for each child. The supervisors and teachers in each school community should alter or create devices such as this to secure the information they need about each child.

	Yes	No

12. To the best of their ability, participate financially in drives for civic purposes? .... ___ ___

13. Incorporate the children into discussion about
Purchases of cars, household articles, etc.? .... ___ ___
Budget plans? .... ___ ___

14. Participate actively in activities related to the following:
School? .... ___ ___
Church? .... ___ ___
Clubs? .... ___ ___
Etc. .... ___ ___

15. To the best of their ability, maintain the physical aspects of the home? ___ ___

16. Offer guidance to the children in matters such as the selection of
Clothes? .... ___ ___
Friends? .... ___ ___
Movies? .... ___ ___
Radio programs? .... ___ ___
Vacation plans? .... ___ ___
Etc. .... ___ ___

17. Insist that the children maintain regular hours for sleeping, eating, etc.? ___ ___

18. Maintain with the children regular schedules for medical and dental examinations? .... ___ ___

SUPERVISORS, ADULTS, AND PUBLIC RELATIONS

In all parts of the United States evidences are apparent which indicate that all community members, youth and adults, are becoming more interested in a continuous program of educational experiences. A few examples will serve to illustrate the types of problems in which community members have expressed interest and action: equality of educational opportunity for all; what should the schools teach in times of crisis; what type of guidance do elementary pupils need; discipline problems at home and school; community environmental influences upon schoolwork; boy and girl relationships; thrift education for young children; ways to encourage pupils to select nutritional foods; what are the needs of our schools; reporting pupil progress.

It is relatively easy to interest parents in discussions of problems pertaining to their schools and to their children at school. From the standpoint of public-relations information, Farley [3] found that

By overwhelming odds parental interest was centered in topics related to the school program. The rank order of these topics of school news was:

[3] B. M. Farley, *What to Tell the People about the Public Schools*, p. 38, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1929.

1. Pupil progress and achievement.
2. Methods of instruction.
3. Health of pupils.
4. Course of study.
5. Value of an education.
6. Discipline and behavior of pupils.
7. Teachers and school officers.
8. Attendance.
9. Buildings and building programs.
10. Business management and finance.
11. Board of education and administration.
12. Parent-teacher association.
13. Extracurricular activities.

This study also contains an analysis of the school news contained in one newspaper from each of ten cities for a period of about three months. Farley found that the order of rank news items was: [4]

1. Extracurricular activities, 47.1 per cent.
2. Teachers and school officers, 9.2 per cent.
3. Parent-teacher association, 8.2 per cent.
4. Pupil progress and achievement, 5.6 per cent.
5. Board of education and administration, 5.2 per cent.
6. Course of study, 5.0 per cent.
7. Business management and finance, 4.8 per cent.
8. Buildings, 4.1 per cent.
9. Methods of instruction, 2.9 per cent.
10. Discipline, 1.7 per cent.
11. Value of education, 1.5 per cent.
12. Attendance, 1.3 per cent.

There are obvious discrepancies between the percentage of news reported and what parents want to know. The administrator or supervisor who is conscious of his public-relations responsibilities will attempt to rectify this situation. It is obviously of advantage to the public-relations medium as well as to the school and total community to publish the type of information in which there is the greatest amount of interest.

Principles Underlying the Organization of Adult Discussion Groups. As a first step in the development of community interest in educational topics, supervisors should organize discussion groups among

[4] *Ibid.,* p. 49.

the adult community members. The key *to success in a project of this type is to remember that the word "discussion" implies activity by all group members.* Many parent groups and parent-teacher groups have failed because administrators and supervisors invited them to school, hoped they would remain passive, and planned a small entertainment for them. The successful leader of parent and parent-teacher discussion groups usually employs the following basic rules:

1. Encourage the parents to participate in the selection of the topic or topics for discussion.

2. Organize the group. Successful discussion groups are well organized and effectively led. *It is a worthy use of the supervisor's time to teach the community members the various types of discussion methods, the methods of selecting a discussion question, the qualifications and duties of the discussion leader and recorder, and the various steps to be followed in organizing a group meeting and leading a discussion.*

3. Offer the use of the school building but encourage the group members to hold meetings in their homes, church recreation rooms, or *community centers. Unfortunately some parents feel uncomfortable or restrained in the school building, so unless there is some special reason for wanting them to come to the school this restraint to discussion should be removed.*

4. Encourage the parents to be active participants, to accept some responsibility to the group, to enjoy themselves while discussing topics that will lead them to perform services for the total school community.

THE SCHOOL COOPERATES WITH ALL COMMUNITY AGENCIES

In its publication, *Planning for American Youth,* the National Association of Secondary-school Principals presented the following discussion about the problem of school-community cooperation: [5]

THE SCHOOL COOPERATES WITH ALL COMMUNITY AGENCIES AND OFFICERS WORKING ON PROGRAMS FOR YOUTH AND USES CITIZENS' ADVISORY COMMITTEES TO IMPROVE SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

American City school people want to work with other community organizations dealing with youth, so that each may contribute to the work of the other and more closely relate the work being done for youth.

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[5] *Planning for American Youth,* pp. 59–60, National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Washington, D.C., 1944.

The school people are also anxious to have the advice and support of the general public. Two types of relationships have been established between the schools and the public. The first of these is advisory groups, and to date two have been functioning:

1. A Citizens' Advisory Council on Postwar Education.
2. An Advisory Committee on Vocational Education.

THE CITIZENS' ADVISORY COUNCIL

A Citizens' Advisory Council has been appointed by the Superintendent to advise on educational changes. All important women's and men's organizations, city departments, public health and welfare, recreational, church council, labor, court, employers and other groups interested in education are represented. The Council meets six times a year to do the following:

1. Assemble and present evidence of needs in the community which can be met by changes in the educational program.
2. Review reports of the Commission on Postwar Education and suggest revisions.
3. Keep their organizations informed of progress on the development of the program.

THE ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Associated with the City Planning Commission is an Occupational Planning Council, an organization representing employers and employees, the public employment service, the schools, and other civic interests. This Council is responsible for planning for the maximum utilization of the human and natural resources of the city and its surrounding area and for proposing new developments to that end. The plans and forecast of this Council are also of great value to the schools.

Working more directly with the vocational program of the schools is a vocational Advisory Committee, composed of representatives of all occupations and of employee and employer groups in the city. This Committee advises the Superintendent on the educational offerings in each occupational field represented in the school training program, and on standards, performance, training, and supervision in these fields.

Recently, this Committee proposed the addition of work in landscape gardening in the school. They constantly review the occupational offerings of the school in the light of a yearly community occupational survey which they help the school system keep up to date. The Committee has worked out a plan for setting up standards of performance, supervision, wages, and working conditions for the work experience of pupils. It has proposed

teacher qualifications and equipment needed in a new occupational work recently added. It has prepared a statement to guide labor and management in setting up positions for youth for part-time work. Each representative is responsible for developing acceptance in his group of the occupational program of the school.

The Advisory Committee helps keep the vocational program down to earth and the community lined up in its support of the program offered. It has really made the productive work-experience program possible and has been indispensable in bridging the gap between the schools and the world of work.

The appointment of these two advisory committees has raised the level of the interest and participation of adults in the school program.

SCHOOL AND OTHER COMMUNITY AGENCIES

The second type of community relations involves school representatives who work with such community agencies as: American City Planning Commission; Youth Council; City Recreation Department; City Public Health Department; City Correctional Authority. The Superintendent, who is a member of the City Planning Commission, keeps the Commission informed of the progress of planning for improving the school program. The school director of health and physical education assists the City Recreation Department on playground and summer programs; the school physician works with the City Public Health Department on contagious diseases, sanitation, diets, and home living conditions of youth; and the city juvenile and welfare workers join with the school's director of guidance and personnel to study problems of youth correction, social maladjustments, and juvenile delinquency. Each contributes his knowledge and advice before the city officials make final decisions on the disposition of cases.

THE YOUTH COUNCIL

One of the important community groups with which the school cooperates closely is the Youth Council. This Council is made up of the leaders of all governmental, public, and private youth-serving agencies in the community and a representative group of youth. It is an unofficial coordinating council attempting to relate the programs of different groups working in the city. The Council has been very effective in planning an over-all program of recreation and community service for all youth in the community. They have made surveys and recommendations to the City Planning Commission on the location of playfields and summer camps. They have arranged for supervising work done by youth on community projects. They were responsible for getting a Junior Placement Bureau established in the school and for getting merchants and indus-

trialists to ear-mark certain jobs as "youth jobs." They handled the recruiting of youth for farm labor during the war, and now the City Council or the City Planning Commission refers requests for youth service of any and all kinds to the Youth Council, rather than to individual agencies, as they once did.

THE ADMINISTRATORS FORUM

The Superintendent of Schools has recently started a Regional Administrators Forum. This Forum is composed of the Superintendent of American City, the twelve district superintendents, like Farmville, serving as "feeder" schools to American City Community Institute, and the Professor of Educational Administration in Midland Valley University. This Forum works together to plan for the improvement of education in the region, and proposes educational changes for study. Every important educational problem affecting the region is discussed by this Forum. American City is learning that working together on common problems accelerates change in a democracy and focuses the thinking of specialists on common problems.

This plan is based upon the establishment of two types of relationships. The first relationship involves the creation of a citizens' advisory group that advises the superintendent on educational changes. The second type of relationship involves educational personnel serving as representatives on various types of community agencies. This entire plan for American City is filled with many commendable suggestions. The plan was drafted in 1944, and it is unfortunate that many school districts have not adopted this plan in part or as a whole. If the tremendous investment in public education is to be used to its best advantage, school and community must learn that by working together the best interests of both are more adequately served.

In *Planning for American Youth*, the National Association of Secondary-school Principals also presented a plan for school-community cooperation in a rural area, Farmville. This problem of school-community cooperation in rural areas differs from the similar one in the cities. For example, in the preceding chapter a new community school, designed to serve the interests of a group of people in the Cumberland Mountains of Tennessee, was described. This is a region of isolated homes, poor gardens, undernourished cattle and hogs. This is a region of indifference in which occasional contacts at the country store or at church are the only interfamily human relations that most of these people experience. The problem of the educational

supervisor, probably the principal in this case, is to accomplish three things. First, he must develop in these people an appreciation of the force for improvement that is inherent in the combined power of people. Second, he must develop in both youth and adults an appreciation for skill in such fundamental things as reading, writing, preparation of balanced meals, wholesome leisure-time pursuits, etc. Third, through 4-H Clubs and services of the state and state university, he must help the adults and youth restore and maintain the soil; learn the advantages of crop rotation, restock their farms with animals that can live on the scant forage available, *e.g.*, goats in place of cows.

On the other hand, some rural communities are composed of large farms of rich, flat or rolling land, possessing fine buildings, and serviced by hard-surfaced or improved roads. A basic problem for these people is to cooperate in the purchase and maintenance of expensive farm machinery; to modernize their methods of farming in order to receive a more abundant harvest; to modernize their homes in order to enjoy all the modern living conditions at one time peculiar to the city homes; to develop schools that are equipped to prepare youth to live successfully on the farm or to migrate to the cities. In all probability these two examples represent the extremes in rural living conditions. To improve the school-community relationships in either area, the following ideas are suggested: [6]

FARMVILLE SECONDARY SCHOOL SERVES THE ENTIRE COMMUNITY, PROVIDING RECREATION, SCIENTIFIC, AND SHOP FACILITIES FOR ADULTS AND YOUNG PEOPLE, OPEN TO THEM ALL DAY AND EVENING

FARMVILLE SECONDARY SCHOOL

1. Buildings are open from 8:00 A.M. to 10:00 P.M., five days a week, and on Saturdays as needed.

2. It is the center of community life.

3. A gymnasium, swimming pool, play field, and hobby shops are open for adults under supervision. The work is planned by the Farmville Adult Education Committee and the District Recreation Director.

4. Rooms are available for public forums and community meetings.

5. The Community Library, which is supplemented by a traveling library to elementary schools and farm houses in the district, is housed in the school.

[6] *Planning for American Youth*, p. 29, National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Washington, D.C., 1944.

6. It has a cafeteria. Families supply much of the food by home growing and canning. Food is sold at cost to youth. Youth assist in managing, planning, and preparing meals under the direction of the home economics teacher.

7. Wood, electrical, metal, and masonry shop rooms are available for youth and adults.

FARMVILLE HOMEMAKING LABORATORY, IN THE SCHOOL BUILDING

1. It is part of the regular school equipment but serves adults on problems of making clothing, decorating the home, caring for children, nursing, home canning, nutrition, budgeting, and family financing.

2. Special projects are carried on for actual occupational work experience in home decorating, dressmaking, catering, etc.

FARMVILLE AGRICULTURAL LABORATORY, IN THE SCHOOL BUILDING

1. Agricultural students operate it under the direction of the agriculture teacher.

2. The work is planned by the Rural Agriculture Committee and the Board of Education.

3. It is open to all farmers in the community. It receives requests, makes studies, and sends out students to assist adults.

4. It serves as a laboratory for developing high crop yields; controlling insects and plant diseases; improving fertilization and cultivation processes; improving animal breeding and feeding; and improving marketing methods.

FARMVILLE AGRICULTURE MACHINE SHOP, ON THE SCHOOL GROUNDS

1. Farmers bring in their machinery for repair.

2. Youth do the work at no cost to the farmer except for parts and materials.

3. Control is under the administration of the school.

FARMVILLE SCHOOL FARM, NEAR THE VILLAGE

1. Farmville School District owns it.

2. Village boys and girls who want to go into farming use it.

3. Students may live there part of year.

4. A man and his wife live on the farm and supervise the pupils.

5. Students rent plots of land, borrow money to raise poultry and cattle, take risks, operate an insurance plan, and keep accounts.

FARMVILLE COMMUNITY COOPERATIVES, IN THE VILLAGE

1. They are managed by a board elected by members of the cooperative.

2. They are open to all in the community on a cooperative basis.

3. They were constructed by school boys as work experience.

4. Mature students serve as paid supervisors under teacher supervision.

5. The school uses them to provide work experience opportunities.

THE SELECTION AND USE OF PUBLIC-RELATIONS MEDIUMS

To a certain extent the effectiveness of any program of public relations is determined by the type of mediums and the way they are used. This does not mean, for example, that television should not be used as a medium because the number of television sets is limited; rather, it means that the more common types of mediums should be used regularly, and television should be used only when it is especially well adapted for the presentation of a particular program in an area where television will reach many homes. The type of medium to be used to present a particular phase of the public-relations program should be determined by the nature of the material to be presented. One medium is seldom comprehensive enough to reach all community members; consequently, it is recommended that more than one medium should be employed for each public-relations task.

Principles for the Selection and Use of Public-relations Mediums. The excellent Twenty-eighth Yearbook [7] of the American Association of School Administrators contains the following list of guiding principles to follow in the selection and use of public-relations mediums:

Do you—

Balance your program so that all types of media and all staff members are used in public relations?

Always select the best media for the specific purpose to be achieved?

Distribute information throughout the year, with a few good stories each week?

Release information to the public while it is still news?

Publicize some of the "little things" around the school?

Give space in publications to the work and accomplishments of many teachers, many departments, and many students?

Start planning early so that you have time to turn out a good job?

Give every item for publication one last check by a second staff member before its release?

Try to be simple, honest, direct, and punctual in the use of all media?

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[7] *Public Relations for America's Schools*, p. 274, American Association of School Administrators, Twenty-eighth Yearbook, Washington, D.C., 1950.

To possess a set of guiding principles is not to ensure the constant selection of the correct public-relations medium. The administrator must study the principles and base his selection policies upon them. One important principle not mentioned in this list is: Do you maintain contact with every home in your school community? The size of the school area should not appreciably affect the amount of time required to maintain contact with every home. In the larger systems there will be an abundance of mediums, and the organization of the program and selection of mediums will take time. In smaller or rural systems the number of available mediums will be smaller but so will the number of homes; in these systems the administrator may need to concentrate on direct personal relationships.

Types of Public-relations Mediums. Any means of communication can be a medium for the public-relations program. The more common means of interpreting the schools to the public are: commercial newspapers; speeches; panel discussions; radio and television; school newspapers; slides; film strips and sound motion pictures; letters to parents; home visitation; observance of special days; school conferences with parents; exhibits; and special bulletins.

The administrator and supervisor will want to use many types of mediums in their public-relations work. In all probability the supervisor will employ home visitation, school conferences with parents, panel discussions, and visual aids more than the administrator. Mediums of this type are more easily directed at individuals or small groups of people than are some of the other types of mediums. Newspapers and radio will probably receive the major share of the public-relations information that emanates from the office of the administrator. This does not preclude the use of any particular medium by either the administrator or supervisor. As a matter of fact, administrators and supervisors often combine their efforts in the production of radio programs and newspaper stories.

Commercial newspapers and radio stations circulate information to such a vast audience that it is wise to be very careful in the preparation of public-relations releases for their use. Usually the newspaper and radio officials will require that information be submitted according to a prescribed form. It is to be recommended that the entire faculty of the school system be encouraged to participate in the public-relations program, but the supervisor or administrator should delegate to one individual the responsibility of check-

ing all material for form before it is submitted. In the preparation of public releases for the press or radio, the following steps may be followed to good advantage: [8]

1. Select the topic.
2. Decide upon the type and length of the article to be prepared.
3. Collect complete information and material.
4. Organize the material in outline form.
5. Prepare the lead paragraph, including the who, what, where, when, why, and how.
6. Write the first draft of the article.
7. Check the story critically and rewrite as necessary.
8. Have the completed copy checked and approved by another staff member to ensure its absolute correctness and maximum effectiveness.
9. Submit the finished article for publication or broadcast.

Supervisors and administrators make many public appearances in the role of speechmakers, moderators, presiding officers at public meetings, participants in radio programs, etc. This type of contact with the public is one of the most fruitful of all the public-relations mediums if the person called upon will give time and attention to preparing himself for the occasion. The so-called "off the cuff" performance will not pay dividends over the course of a long period of time. All teachers and prospective teachers should be encouraged, if not required, seriously to study speech and speech organization. To add a note of caution—the wise supervisor will watch carefully to prevent the public from overtaxing the energies of his teachers by calling on them too often for speeches and other public duties.

Audio-visual materials of all kinds furnish excellent mediums for the public-relations program. Recordings by the school orchestra, band, individual teachers and students, or choral groups are always popular. Motion pictures of athletic contests, special programs, or actual classroom situations can be shown time and time again to various groups in the school community. For example, there are individuals who charge that modern schools are neglecting to teach the fundamental skill subjects. The charge is entirely erroneous, but the supervisor who can go to the parents, who won't come to school,

[8] *Public Relations for America's Schools*, p. 285, American Association of School Administrators, Twenty-eighth Yearbook, Washington, D.C., 1950.

with a sound motion picture of actual classroom sessions can easily dispel the charge. A great percentage of schools now have some individual who is in charge of the audio-visual materials. This person can be trained in the production of slides and film strips. When the person has been trained, it is a relatively inexpensive matter for him to develop a running pictorial account of significant occurrences in the life of the school.

One occasionally sees a commercial advertisement which states in part that "a business is judged by its correspondence." This statement applies with great force to a school's correspondence. Each letter, explanation on report card, invitation to visit the school, etc., should be a model in materials used, form, organization, and courtesy. More and more teachers are using letters as a means of contacting parents. The diligent supervisor will discuss the preparation of letters with his teachers. If a brief reply to a letter is required, a postal card or self-addressed envelope should be enclosed.

Throughout the course of the school year, many "special days" will be recognized. For the special days many visitors will come to the schools and many exhibits, dramas, pictures, etc., will be prepared for their inspection. On special days many exhibits may be arranged in "downtown" store windows. Wherever the exhibit, picture, or other visual material is located, it should be an example of student work and it should definitely carry a message that can be readily understood by all people. Regardless of where the exhibit is assembled, the supervisor should designate some individual to be responsible for causing it to be assembled and removed according to a prearranged time schedule. At school there should always be an exhibit committee whose responsibility it is to solicit current, refreshing, and pertinent displays and exhibits. A display that is out of date, mutilated, dirty, or irrelevant can bring a great amount of ridicule to the school in which it had its origin.

Many schools periodically produce bulletins of a pictorial nature. If these bulletins are prepared for distribution to each home, they are a very valuable public-relations medium. Bulletins offer supervisors a wonderful opportunity to present new instructional procedures in both picture and prose form. *The Baltimore Bulletin of Education* [9] is a good example of this fact. Upon examination of the

table of contents in the issue that has been cited, we find the follow-
ing articles plus the names and positions of the persons who wrote
them:

"The Administrator and the Social Studies"
　William H. Lemmel, Superintendent
"Living and Learning Together"
　Madeline Taylor, Naomi Frye, Eleanor Bedford, and Pauline Muel-
　　ler, Elementary Teachers
"Wonders of Education"
　John L. Stenquist, Director of Research
"United Nations Youth at W H S"
　Helen Weber, Teacher and Sponsor of UNYO
"Upper and Lower Schools Meet"
　Samuel L. Taylor, Supervisor, Mathematics in Junior High School
"Regional Faculty Conferences"
　Beatrice T. Rawlings, Supervisor, Elementary Schools
"A Child with a Problem Meets a Visiting Teacher"
　Arthur Lichtenstein, Director of Special Services for Pupils, and Staff
"Supervision of Student Accounting"
　E. L. Hendrix, Chief Accountant, Long Beach, California, Unified
　　School District
"The Library and Extra-class Activities"
　Bernice Wiese, Supervisor, School Libraries
"Building Attitudes"
　John H. Schwatka, Principal, Southern Junior-Senior High School
"Interior Decorating for the Civic-minded"
　Louise Hock, Teacher of Homeroom-Centered Curriculum, Junior
　　High School

One superintendent, three supervisors, and one principal used this
bulletin as a medium for presenting a picture and prose account
about some phase of their work. It is also interesting to note that
altogether seven different classifications of educational personnel
from the Baltimore schools plus one outside consultant are listed in
the table of contents. A bulletin of this type furnishes the supervisor
with an excellent opportunity to recognize superior teaching. How-
ever, the supervisor must beware of the fallacy of citing the work of
the same teachers in successive bulletins. It is unquestionably an
expensive procedure to produce a bulletin of this type, but if the
school district can afford such a publication, it is possible to combine

in it the greater majority of the characteristics of a good public-relations medium.

The program for establishing better school-community relationships must be geared to the problems and needs in each community. Expense and method of operation are basic factors that the supervisor or administrator must consider as he plans a program that expresses modern educational philosophy and at the same time meets the community's problems and needs. The program must be continuous, and more and more supervisors must carry the message to the public that these are *your schools.*

SUMMARY

Democracy as a mode of living exists only as it is reflected in each of us through our attitudes, values, and behavior in all that we do. The general public has a tremendous investment of faith and money in public education. The public expects the schools to assume a major responsibility in preparing its youth to make an adequate and happy adjustment to the democratic way of life. Supervisors and administrators should encourage the public to demand an educational accounting in regard to the faith and money they have invested in public education.

An uninformed school community is a liability to the improvement of the educational program. Supervisors should go to the public and encourage the public to come to them in order to give an accounting of, and seek help in, planning an ever-better program of education.

It is impossible to consider school-community relationships without considering the public-relations program. A guiding set of principles for an effective public-relations program is presented in this chapter. Toward the end of the chapter a second set of principles related to the selection of the mediums to be used in the public-relations program is presented. The importance of children in the public-relations program is constantly stressed.

Chapter 11. EVALUATING THE SCHOOL PLANT

You cannot have a good school with four walls and a minimum of equipment. We in America have manifested our faith in the power of public education as a social institution that can perpetuate the good things in our culture and contribute to the improvement of those things that must be constantly adapted in order to keep pace with the demands of a progressive society. We realize that every community needs a physical school plant and a location that will make it possible to have the best educational program that modern educators can devise. The word "best" must not strike a note of finality, for the way must always be open to incorporate into the school's physical plant and program the new ideas that will come with tomorrow.

It is a gross waste of our valuable human resources to hinder teachers by forcing them to work in outdated buildings and with obsolete materials. There are many who will argue that the creative teacher will be able to do a good job in almost any type of building. There is some truth in this argument, but we must remember that we are interested in improvement, in an ever-better job, not just a good one.

It is always important to remember that our schools have a significant and distinctive service to perform for the youth and for the adults of the community. This service cannot be rendered effectively with only bare necessities. Our tremendous consolidation and accompanying school transportation program are testimony to the fact that we have recognized the need for better school facilities. We must not be satisfied with the recognition of the need; we must be satisfied only with a program of action that includes plans for constant improvement.

A consideration of school buildings and building programs is a vast and important subject in itself. The following discussion will primarily be confined to the presentation of several examples selected

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to show the supervisor's responsibility in the continuous evaluation of the physical plant.

ESTIMATING SPACE NEEDS FOR MODERN SCHOOLS

Our nation's schools are confronted with a drastic shortage of laboratory, recreational, and classroom space. Large and small, rural and urban school systems are all confronted with this critical condition. There seems to be little apparent relief for this situation; overcrowded schools continue to be overcrowded and their number seems to increase rather than decrease. When this problem is coupled with the problem caused by the necessary employment of a vast number of substandard teachers, the result is an intensification of the supervisory problem. In order to have sufficient classroom space many school districts are employing one or two possible alternatives. First, administrators are using basements in private homes, Sunday-school rooms, automobile showrooms, etc., as classrooms; or second, they are dividing the student body into morning and afternoon groups. An understanding of the nature of the increase in school enrollments at all levels can be developed by studying the table on page 233.

An examination of past public-school building practices does not indicate that the present building needs will be met. It has been estimated that an expenditure of 13 billion dollars would be required to meet the building needs of our public-school system during the course of the next ten years. According to the accompanying table, the peak enrollment at the first level in the elementary school will be in 1955 when 4,841,000 children will be enrolled, and in 1959 at the first level in the four-year secondary school when 2,350,000 students will be enrolled. Administrators and supervisors must engage in long-range thinking about this problem. Administrators must exert every effort to secure the means with which to alleviate this critical shortage, and supervisors should be encouraging their teachers to project plans that will continue to increase the effectiveness of the educational process in spite of the shortage. It is important to remember that in many ways the strength of our democracy emanates from our system of public education; this system must be improved regardless of the density of the pupil population at any level.

Planning a Building Program. It is possible that part of our present building shortage is due to poor planning in the past. The administrator who is embarking upon a building program must develop

CENSUS BUREAU'S FORECAST OF FUTURE SCHOOL ENROLLMENT BY GRADES

YEAR	Elementary School Grades								Total Elementary School	High School Grades				Total High School	GRAND TOTAL
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		1	2	3	4		

Main enrollment figures (in thousands), 1947–1960

PERCENT CHANGE SINCE PRECEDING YEAR

(rows 1948–1960)

PERCENT CHANGE SINCE 1947

(rows 1948–1960)

Individual figures are rounded to nearest thousands. Percentage not shown about less than 0.05.

an understanding of the past, present, and future conditions in his school district or city in order to give intelligent direction to the program. Since supervisors work very closely with the various communities in the school district or city, they must assume a major responsibility for helping the administrator develop this basic understanding.

It is not our purpose to analyze all the problems the administrator will face when planning a building program, but, through the medium of the following example, to suggest some of the more important ones that are directly related to the task of supervision.

Problem 1. It is necessary to have an accurate school census. This census should cover a period of at least ten years preceding the building year and should either plot the exact residence of each pupil or should group the pupils together on the basis of home districts served by the school.

In the chart which follows, a consolidated school is located in an urban center of 25,000 people. The school pupils who live in this

DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS BY DISTRICTS

District	1939 to 1940	1940 to 1941	1941 to 1942	1942 to 1943	1943 to 1944	1944 to 1945	1945 to 1946	1946 to 1947	1947 to 1948	1948 to 1949	1949 to 1950
I	91	94	86	79	83	78	78	91	91	101	88
II	11	16	10	20	9	12	9	16	19	36	41
III	42	47	57	49	47	45	51	62	51	58	67
IV	3	3	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
V	6	8	5	3	..	1	1	2	2	2	
VI	1	4	5	1							
VII	..	1	..	..	..	..	12	12	16	15	17
VIII	..	..	..	1	1	1					
IX	..	..	..	..	4	4	6	22	29	36	36
X	..	..	..	..	1	1					
XI	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1			
XII	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1			
XIII	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1		
XIV	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	
Total nonresident	154	173	164	153	145	142	168	207	208	249	250
Total resident	292	271	277	272	246	241	253	258	268	232	218
Total enrollment	446	444	441	425	391	383	421	465	476	481	468

center are classified as resident; those who live outside the center have been counted in their home districts and are classified as nonresident. An examination of this distribution chart reveals that the total nonresident school population has increased steadily since 1945–1946, and the resident population decreased steadily from 1939–1940 to 1944–1945; following the latter date the population began to rise and reached its peak for the ten-year period in 1948–1949.

Problem 2. The second problem is to determine the load of pupils who have been in each subject-matter division for each of the preceding ten years. The bar graphs on pages 236 to 237 serve to illustrate one method of organizing this information.

With the information that can be gleaned from those graphs and the preceding school census chart, the administrator can predict trends in enrollment and subject-matter selections. The administrator must also study population forecasts (see page 233) and industrial trends in his school city or district. When this information is added to that gained as a result of the school census and study of the distribution of pupils by subject-matter areas, the administrator will be able to direct the planning of a building program that will be adequate to meet the demands of the building year and of the years to come.

If the school administrator is not an authority on school architecture, he and selected representatives from his school city or district should seek some expert counsel. In some states the state university provides this type of service. If this type of service is not provided by the state, the administrator should seek the counsel of private experts. Two types of information are needed at this point: (1) recommendations concerning trends in the number of square feet per pupil station in the various types of classrooms and laboratories; (2) recommendations concerning trends in modern school design. The supervisors should be actively interested in both recommendations and should thoroughly investigate them in order to defend intelligently the inclusion of special features that will make the educational process more effective.

Problems 1 and 2 are based upon the assumption that the school city or district is experiencing normal variation in population increases and decreases. However, a large percentage of our population is mobile, being forced to follow the location of the industry in or from which they derive their income. The wise administrator who

Mathematics

1939-1940	192
1940-1941	159
1941-1942	171
1942-1943	179
1943-1944	149
1944-1945	178
1945-1946	202
1946-1947	181
1947-1948	159
1948-1949	186
1949-1950	180

Music

1939-1940	176
1940-1941	125
1941-1942	286
1942-1943	217
1943-1944	115
1944-1945	154
1945-1946	154
1946-1947	180
1947-1948	269
1948-1949	432
1949-1950	390

is thinking in terms of a *long-range program* will look beyond his community in an attempt to determine if forces that are not readily apparent should enter into his planning.

Problem 3. To make this series of problems more illustrative let us assume that the administrator learns of an industrial concern that is going to open a branch plant in the city which he serves as superintendent. Subsequent investigations indicate that the migration of people who will follow the industry to town will probably include enough children to cause the senior-high-school population to double within the next four years. The problem now rests in

Vocational Agriculture
None before 1942-1943

1942-1943 ▆ 15

1943-1944 ▆ 24

1944-1945 ▆ 20

1945-1946 ▆ 29

1946-1947 ▆ 38

1947-1948 ▆ 69

1948-1949 ▆ 59

1949-1950 ▆ 69

the question: How much should the building program be expanded in order to provide adequately for the eventual doubled enrollment?

Since English is a required subject in the secondary school, the administrator selects it for a trial study. First, he plots the enrollment in English for the current year and the preceding ten years and constructs the accompanying graph:

English

1939-1940 ▆ 516

1940-1941 ▆ 461

1941-1942 ▆ 467

1942-1943 ▆ 626

1943-1944 ▆ 508

1944-1945 ▆ 517

1945-1946 ▆ 535

1946-1947 ▆ 592

1947-1948 ▆ 518

1948-1949 ▆ 511

1949-1950 ▆ 458

Armed with this graph and accompanied by his English supervisor, the administrator, in order to proceed intelligently with his planning, visits the state university to consult the English advisers and school-building consultants about the following two questions:

1. How many rooms will be required to house an enrollment in English twice the size of the present enrollment?

2. What special features should be incorporated into the plans for a suite of English rooms that will make the experiences in English more meaningful?

From a practical standpoint the first question is obviously the more important. In response to this question the English advisers at the university submit the following recommendation:

<div align="center">

ENGLISH

</div>

5 standard classrooms, 25 by 35 feet.................	4,375 square feet
1 special classroom, e.g., stage, 25 by 50 feet...........	1,250 square feet
Total..	5,625 square feet

The university's English advisers also make many recommendations concerning special features, but the administrator and his English supervisor decide to postpone any consideration of them until a future date.

Shortly after the return from the university campus, the administrator informs his supervisor that unfortunately the recommendations for room space must be modified and assigns the responsibility for making a new recommendation to the supervisor. In order to arrive at an intelligent modification, the English supervisor establishes the following factors:

1. Number of students who will be registered in the subject—1,038. This number was determined by doubling the average enrollment for the current year and preceding ten years.

2. Number of class periods of subject per week—5. English meets daily during the course of a five-day school week.

3. Average size of each section—30.

4. Number of periods in school day—6.

5. Twenty square feet per pupil station.

The supervisor then substitutes the first four factors into Packer's room formula [1]

$$\frac{\text{Number of students registered in subject}}{\text{Average size of section (30)}}$$

$$\times \frac{\text{number of class periods of subject per week (5)}}{\text{number of periods in school day (6)} \times 5}$$

$$= \textit{number of rooms required}$$

and obtains the following modification:

5.8 classrooms — 3,480 square feet

English	
1939-1940	516
1940-1941	461
1941-1942	467
1942-1943	626
1943-1944	508
1944-1945	517
1945-1946	535
1946-1947	592
1947-1948	518
1948-1949	511
1949-1950	458

Average for all years listed 519
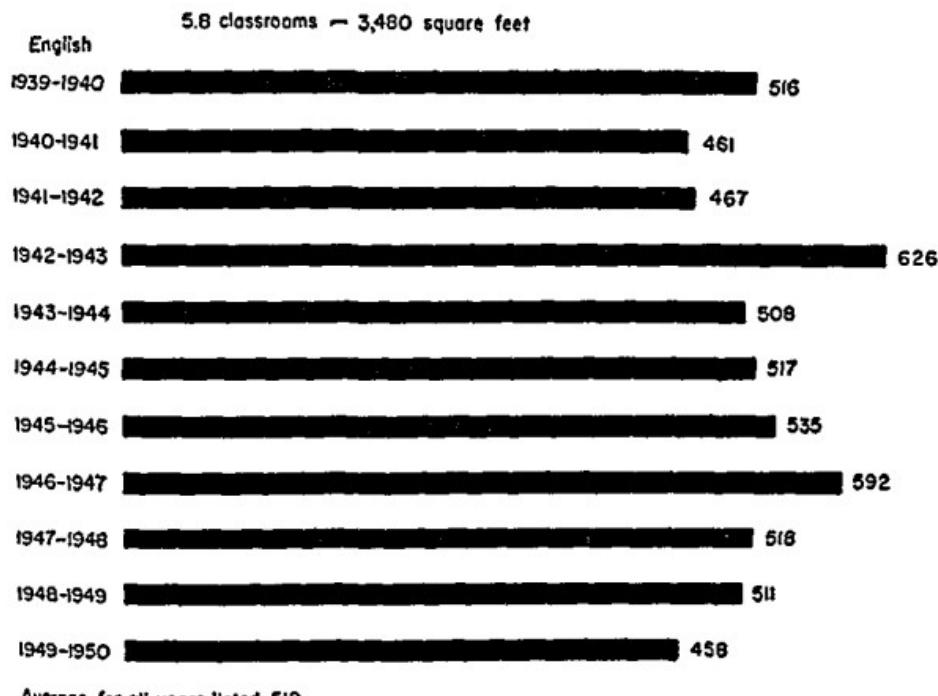
The intention of the preceding discussion is to emphasize the fact that if modifications away from the ideal must be made in school-building projects, there is a method by which they can be made intelligently. Demands upon public education continue to increase, and educators can only meet these demands by increasing their staffs

[1] H. R. Douglass, *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools*, p. 28, Ginn & Company, Boston, 1945.

and the extent of their physical facilities. Up to this time the public has been either unwilling or unable to finance adequately the staffing and building of modern schools to meet these demands.

THE SCHOOL SITE

The school site is a very important part of the total environment in which the supervisor and his teachers create learning experiences for pupils. Many of America's present schools stand in the midst of houses, factories, railroad tracks, and apartment houses and provide no space for physical education, recreation, or laboratory experiences on the school grounds outside of the school buildings. These conditions have caused school administrators to recommend the following scale [2] with which to judge the size of the site:

For elementary schools, five acres plus an additional acre for each one hundred pupils of ultimate enrollment. Thus, an elementary school of two hundred would have a site of seven acres.

For secondary schools, ten acres plus an additional acre for each one hundred pupils of ultimate enrollment. Thus a high school of five hundred pupils would have a site of fifteen acres.

Schools should be conveniently located near the center of the present and predicted future school population. The school site should be free from traffic hazards, noises, industrial activity, and any influences that might be deleterious to school pupils. Schools must be located within walking distance of the greatest number of pupils, close range to roads upon which pupils can be transported, close range to public and natural draining facilities, and if at all possible, the site should readily lend itself to attractive landscaping. A progressive community realizes that a modern school plant housing a modern system of education is highly indicative of good community spirit.

Outcalt [3] has set forth the following basic requirements pertaining to a particular school site:

[2] *American School Buildings*, p. 75, American Association of School Administrators, Twenty-seventh Yearbook, Washington, D.C., 1949.

[3] R. F. Outcalt, "Pentagonal and Conventional Rooms Adapted to Site and Plant Expansion," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 45, p. 57, March, 1950.

1. The building site is located in an outlying residential section of the city, where continuing growth is expected.

2. The site is adequate, in terms of modern standards, for a much larger building than that to be erected at the present time.

3. The building is to house pupils in kindergarten and Grades 1 to 7.

4. The board of education is interested, at the present time, in developing only that portion of the site which is necessary to serve the number of pupils that are to be accommodated in the facilities to be erected now.

These requirements were drawn with a specific building in mind but they serve to illustrate several problems. It is no longer practical to purchase plots of land large enough to serve adequately as school sites in many of our urban centers. Consequently, administrators are recommending the purchase of land on the outskirts of these centers and are making provision to transport all the school pupils. The major argument for this plan is that larger schools, with more facilities, on more adequate sites, can provide facilities for a broader program of educational experiences. The argument against the plan is that when the school is separated from the community whose children it serves, the school ceases to be a community center and the parents begin to lose interest in the school and school program. Both arguments indicate certain types of advantages, and each school district or city must select the plan which is most advantageous for it.

The requirements cited above indicate that the administration is looking forward to expanding the building project as new needs come into being in the community. In line with this thought it is interesting to note that the administration is planning to develop only that part of the site which is necessary to serve the current number of pupils. If maximum use is to be made of the site and buildings, they must be planned together in order to obtain the maximum educational and recreational use from both.

In order to emphasize certain facts that the administrator and his supervisors should constantly evaluate, part one of a check list that will appear in sections throughout this chapter is presented at this point:

EVALUATION OF THE SCHOOL PLANT

Part One

		Yes	No

I. Site
   A. Suitability.
      1. Are the pupils required to walk beyond the following maximum
         distances to get to school
         a. Elementary, three-quarters of a mile?...................... ____ ____
         b. Junior high, one and a quarter to one and three-quarter miles? ____ ____
         c. Senior high, two miles?.................................... ____ ____
      2. Is the school site free from
         a. Traffic hazards?... ____ ____
         b. Traffic noises?.. ____ ____
         c. Industrial developments?................................... ____ ____
         d. Industrial noises?.. ____ ____
         e. Deleterious activities?...................................... ____ ____
      3. Is the school site close to adequate transportation facilities?..... ____ ____
         a. Roads for school buses?.................................... ____ ____
         b. Public transportation services?............................. ____ ____
      4. Is the school site close to
         a. Existing drainage facilities?................................ ____ ____
         b. Existing power lines?....................................... ____ ____
         c. Trees, contours, and other natural surroundings that will add
            to the attractiveness of the school?........................ ____ ____
   B. Space needs.
      1. Is the site large enough to provide adequate space
         a. Between the building and street?............................ ____ ____
         b. Between the building and other properties?.................. ____ ____
         c. For faculty and service parking?........................... ____ ____
         d. For recreational areas for school and out-of-school use?...... ____ ____
         e. For outside laboratories, *e.g.*, gardens?..................... ____ ____
   C. Maintenance.
      1. Are the buildings and grounds
         a. Clean?... ____ ____
         b. Attractively planted?....................................... ____ ____
         c. Well maintained?... ____ ____

INTERIOR OF THE SCHOOL PLANT

In the first section of this chapter a discussion was presented on methods of estimating interior space needs. School architects, administrators, supervisors, accrediting associations, etc., are all interested in space needs as part of the problem of designing and maintaining school plants that are functional, hygienic, and flexible. For example, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has established the following criterion: [4]

[4] *Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools,* p. 20, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Criterion 5.

The school plant should be flexible, adequate in size, and so planned as to facilitate the offering of a modern program of secondary education that is suited to the needs and interests of the pupils and the community. When a new plant is being planned, or an existing building is to be enlarged or remodeled, plans should contemplate meeting future as well as present needs. The building should be attractive and appropriate in design and should assure the safety and health of its occupants. The site should be large enough to provide ample playground space and should be attractively landscaped.

The Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools [5] approaches the same problem in this way:

The location and construction of the buildings; the lighting, heating, and ventilation of the rooms; the nature of the lavatories, corridors, closets, water supply, school furniture and apparatus; and the methods of cleaning shall be such as to insure good educational and hygienic conditions for both pupils and teachers. The above factors shall be passed upon by the State Building Supervisor where such an officer is provided and in other cases by the State High School Supervisor.

This statement is more comprehensive than the preceding one, but the basic plan of presenting the criteria is fundamentally different. For example, the Northwest Association lists the various items to be evaluated while the North Central Association employs a series of subheadings to consider the same items, *e.g.,* "Sanitation," "Instructional Equipment and Supplies," etc. When a school has been approved by an accrediting association, it is a function of the supervisory staff to see that the conditions which existed when the school was approved are maintained. These conditions should be in harmony with the philosophy of the school or as stated by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools: [6]

The school plant should be in harmony with the philosophy of the school and be suited to the attainment of its objectives. It should include ample and attractive grounds and be pleasing in design. It should assure the health and safety of its occupants and be economical in operation and maintenance.

[5] *Manual of Accrediting Secondary Schools,* rev. ed., p. 3, Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, Standard 1, 1950.

[6] "Standard Seven," *Bulletin of Information,* The Commission on Secondary Schools, Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1950.

Modern schools must be designed to serve both the needs of youth and adults. The modern school is a community school and it must be so situated and designed that it gives the impression of making you a welcome part of it. This attitude of feeling welcome, of feeling that you belong, to a building must be supported by the attitude of the educational personnel. The first direct impression of a school is usually a visual one, and its appearance must not stimulate individuals to fear or be reluctant to become a part of the educational program maintained in this physical structure.

The Modern Classroom. Our youth are required to spend the greater portion of their school time in classrooms. Therefore, all educational personnel should exert every effort to design and maintain classrooms that are healthful, comfortable places in which youth may have the types of experiences that will help them make adequate life adjustments. To design rooms of this type frequently requires that school architects depart from the traditional type of classroom and create new shapes with different wall appointments than before.

The term "coordinated classroom" is being widely used today. A coordinated classroom will provide for at least the following conditions: [†]

It provides conditions that contribute to normal physiological and psychological growth, such as (1) adequate light intensities for a variety of visual tasks, (2) a "smooth" distribution of light on horizontal and vertical planes and other working surfaces, (3) acceptable brightness ratios within any visual field, and (4) sufficient directionality to the resultant of light energy to provide proper modeling shadows for three dimensional seeing.

It employs color and uses materials that contribute to effective seeing, appeal to children, and further aesthetic appreciation. It is designed to possess a warmth, a texture, and a scale that are familiar and attractive to children.

Healthful Environment

The "coordinated classroom" also embodies auditory, thermal, atmospheric, sanitary, and safety conditions that effectively influence normal development of the "whole" child. Noise generated within the room is reduced to acceptable levels. Transmission of sound between rooms is minimized or eliminated. Reverberation times for sounds within the room are reduced to recommended levels. Temperatures consistent with pupil

† Outcalt, op. cit., p. 47.

well-being are maintained. Air is clean and free from disturbing odors. Finished surfaces and equipment are specified and designed to permit easy cleaning and to minimize the possibility of accidents.

The same principles should be applied to corridors and to other areas in view of the functions for which they are intended. Since there is movement from one area to another, such as from a classroom in which intensive visual tasks are performed to a corridor whose chief function is circulation, there should be a gradual transition from one set of conditions to another set.

The attempt to educate parents so they will be conscious of good and bad points in a classroom is being made on many fronts. The supervisor should seize every opportunity to discuss problems of this type with the community members. As an interpreter of the schools to the community and of the community to the schools, this is a rightful function of the supervisor. In an article, "Bye, Bye, Blackboard," which appeared in a popular magazine, Sarah Gordon established the following criteria for evaluating a classroom: [8]

Your child's classroom is bad for him if it has:

1. Dark or drab finished walls; dark dados or wainscots; gray, off-white, or colored ceilings and drops.
2. Dark-finished furniture or woodwork.
3. Dark or oiled floors.
4. Sun glaring through windows; large areas of sky visible to him while he is working at desk.
5. Large blackboard areas on front on inside walls; blackboards on rear and window walls; chalk boards (black or colored) of adult size and mounting height, rather than sized and mounted to fit the children.
6. Tablet armchairs, screwed-down furniture.
7. Glossy surfaces on furniture, woodwork, walls, chalk boards.
8. Trees, shrubs, and other landscaping obscuring windows.
9. Harsh shadows and dark areas in room.
10. Uncovered areas of glass in his field of vision, such as glass in corridor doors, in breeze windows into corridor, on pictures, clocks, etc.
11. "Warm" colors used in decorating rooms of south, or sun exposures; "cool" colors in rooms of north or shaded exposures.
12. Open lamp and unshielded light fixtures.
13. Not enough light on dark days.

[8] Sarah Gordon, "Bye, Bye, Blackboard," *Better Homes and Gardens*, November, 1948, pp. 131, 132.

Your child is under a schoolroom strain if:

1. One side of his face appears much brighter than the other when he's looking at his desk or to the front of the room. This is especially bad if the bright area also *covers one eye.*

2. He sits with one or both shoulders pointing upward, rather than sloping downward.

3. He works closer to his tasks than a distance equal to the length of his forearm and hand from elbow to middle knuckle.

4. His elbow and upper arm "wings" out appreciably when he's working.

5. He sits on one foot *a lot of the time.*

6. Tilts his head to one side.

7. He places the center of his work to one side, rather than right in front of him.

It is difficult to overestimate the importance of the physical surroundings in the learning situation. When school patrons really understand how much the child's learning is affected by his physical surroundings, they will be more willing to contribute to the financing of school plant improvements. Harmon strongly states the problem this way: [a]

If we accept the concept, as most educators do, that the child operates as a totality--that organically he strives to grow, develop and function as an integrated whole inseparable from the environment in which he finds himself—then we must recognize there are, in effect, two teachers in every classroom.

One is the human teacher who plans and implements the child's educational experiences. *Present also is a combination of physical forces and forms that set into action the child's basic biological behaviors from which he derives social and personal learnings out of those educational experiences. Each of these teachers is of equal importance to the child's development.*

There are many classrooms that would not meet the criteria already listed. Unquestionably most educators are interested in the development of the whole child, but to provide the physical environment necessary for such development is such an immense project that it will not be realized in the immediate future. It is questionable

[a] D. B. Harmon, "Principles and Philosophy of the Coordinated Classroom," *The Nation's Schools,* Vol. 45, p. 49, March, 1950.

if many of the structures which we must continue to use as school buildings for some time are worthy of the expense that would be involved in remodeling them. However, all educational leaders should insist that all new school buildings be so constructed that the physical environment may make its maximum contribution to the education of our youth; and, wherever feasible, buildings already constructed should be so altered that they too may make their contribution.

EVALUATION OF THE SCHOOL PLANT

Part Two

	Yes	No
II. Buildings.		
A. Do the buildings have		
1. *Attractive exteriors?*		
2. Exits adequate for any emergency?		
3. Entrances adequate for any occasion?		
4. Attractive entrances?		
5. Corridors adequate to handle all school circulation?		
B. Do the buildings provide for a gradual transition from classroom to corridor conditions from the standpoint of		
1. Lighting?		
2. Decoration?		
3. Acoustical engineering?		
C. Do the buildings have enough drinking fountains of appropriate heights to serve all who use the building?		
D. Do the buildings provide an adequate amount of space for each of the following:		
1. Food services?		
2. Laundry services?		
3. Administrative services?		
4. Supervisory services?		
5. Adult group meetings?		
6. Youth group meetings?		
7. Girls' toilets?		
8. Boys' toilets?		
9. Adult visitors' waiting rooms?		
10. Adult visitors' toilets?		
11. Faculty men's lounge?		
12. Faculty men's toilets?		
13. Faculty women's lounge?		
14. Faculty women's toilets?		
15. Custodial-service offices?		
16. Storage space for custodial supplies and equipment?		
17. Storage space for books, office equipment, and secretarial supplies?		
18. General storage?		

                                                               Yes   *No*

E. Libraries.
   1. Does the central library
      a. Meet the study needs of all the pupils?..................... ____ ____
      b. Meet the recreational needs of all the pupils?.............. ____ ____
      c. Include a series of small adjoining conference rooms?....... ____ ____
      d. Include one or more small conference rooms that are equipped
           for playing records and transcriptions?.................... ____ ____
   2. Does the school maintain a professional library and workroom
      for the teachers?.......... .... ____ ____
F. Student locker facilities.
   1. Does each student have his own locker?..................... ____ ____
   2. Do all lockers have built-in combination locks?..... .... ____ ____
   3. Do the lockers protude into the corridors?.... ... . ____ ____
   4. Do the student locker assignments permit the students enough
      time to visit lockers after each class if necessary?............ ____ ____
G. Floor surfaces.
   1. Are the floors
      a. Made of nonskid materials?.... ... . ____ ____
      b. Attractively finished?........ .   .. . ____ ____
      c. Appropriate for the type of activities conducted in the various
           rooms?.. ____ ____
      d. Clean?................................. .... ____ ____

                    EVALUATION OF THE SCHOOL PLANT

                              Part Three
                                                               Yes   *No*
III. Classrooms.*
   A. Location.
      1. Are related activities located near one another?............. ____ ____
      2. Are classrooms for elementary grades located on first floor?.... ____ ____
      3. Are the elementary classrooms equipped with a door or close to
         a door that leads to the play area?......................... ____ ____
   B. Interior of the rooms.
      1. Are the rooms so designed that
         a. Adequate light is available for a number of visual tasks?.. ____ ____
         b. Room noises are reduced to an acceptable level?.......... ____ ____
         c. Room temperatures can be maintained that are consistent
              with pupil well-being?................................ ____ ____
         d. Room air is conditioned and free from distracting odors and
              particles?....................................... ____ ____
         e. All finished surfaces can be cleaned easily?..... .... ____ ____
      2. Are the rooms equipped with
         a. Green chalk boards?................................. ____ ____
         b. White chalk boards?.... .... ____ ____
         c. Black chalk boards?................................. ____ ____

	Yes	*No*
3. Are the cloakrooms		
a. Equipped with sliding doors?	——	——
b. Large enough to accommodate the clothing of all children?	——	——
c. Equipped with hangers that can be reached by all?	——	——
4. Is the room provided with ample storage space?	——	——
5. Is the room equipped with bookshelves?	——	——
6. Is the room equipped with		
a. Hot running water?	——	——
b. Cold running water?	——	——
c. Sink?	——	——
d. Work counters with waterproof tops?	——	——
7. Is appropriate physical equipment available for the following activities:		
a. Elementary science?	——	——
b. General science?	——	——
c. Biological sciences?	——	——
d. Physical sciences?	——	——
e. Vocational arts?	——	——
f. Home arts?	——	——
g. Commercial arts?	——	——
h. Fine arts?	——	——
i. Debates and panel discussions?	——	——
8. Is ample display space provided in the room?	——	——
9. Is ample storage space provided in the room?	——	——
10. Is the room equipped with some type of dividers so that it can be sectionalized?	——	——

A supervisor and his teachers can make check lists for suites of rooms or for a single room. There is a limitless amount of material that can be placed on these evaluation lists and the limits must be decided for each group. For example, a supervisor may want to check rooms for the following types of items:

	Yes	*No*
Is the room provided with growing things in		
Window boxes?	——	——
Terrariums?	——	——
Potted plants?	——	——
Does the room have child interest centers		
Science corner?	——	——
Collector's corner?	——	——
Reading section?	——	——
Hobby center?	——	——
Work center?	——	——

Part three of the Evaluation of the School Plant includes many items that apply to both elementary and secondary schools. The traditional secondary-school classroom in which the lecture and reci-

tation methods were the only ones used was probably adequately
equipped when it had been provided with a medium-sized black
chalk board, teacher's desk, and tablet armchairs. However, the
modern trend is to lengthen the class periods and employ methods
that require changing the traditional secondary classroom into a
learning laboratory. When this change takes place, the supervisor
will want to evaluate the rooms with the following types of questions:

	Yes	No
Do the rooms		
Include table-top desks that provide ample space for reference books, notebooks, texts?	——	——
Include adequate storage cabinets?	——	——
Include an adequate amount of shelving?	——	——
Include an adequate number of filing cabinets?	——	——
Is the room		
Adjoined by a conference room?	——	——
Adjoined by a reference room for materials specialized for the subject-matter area?	——	——
Equipped for the use of audio-visual teaching aids?	——	——
Equipped with movable tables?	——	——

Physical education, music, business education, and other types of
special rooms all introduce new requirements. In addition to stand-
ard and special classrooms, which we think of as being for the normal
pupil, we also need many rooms with extra types of good equipment
for the teaching of handicapped pupils. In so far as it is practical,
handicapped children should be encouraged to share their school
life with normal children. The abnormal treatment of handicapped
children, who at a future date are expected to participate in all of
life's normal activities, is one of the weak points in many school
districts and cities. However, the schools that incorporate handi-
capped children into their student bodies must expect to provide
additional supervisory services.

Up to this point very little has been said about chairs, desks, study
tables, etc., at the various school levels. The school furniture must
always fit the individuals who are going to use it. It must be adaptable
to the methods of instruction that will be used by the various teachers.
The furniture in any schoolroom is very definitely a physical force
that can exert a pronounced effect upon the child's behavior during

the learning experiences. The supervisor and his teachers who are interested in developing the effectiveness of their teaching will definitely work as a group to acquire the type of school furniture that most adequately meets the needs of their pupils.

EQUIPMENT AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO THE ADULT PROGRAM

Over and above its fundamental purpose of providing a multilevel educational program, the modern school is a community center. Through the use of the school's facilities, adults and youth satisfy their cultural, social, and recreational needs. The usefulness of a modern school does not end with the school day, semester, or school year. The school belongs to all the people and it must serve their needs.

What Are the Out-of-school Needs of Adults and Youth? For many years a great percentage of our teachers and supervisors have looked upon the so-called "out-of-school tasks" as extra burdens to bear. They are not to be condemned for this attitude because it is quite difficult to generate much enthusiasm for working afterschool hours with no salary adjustment. Almost any teacher would be willing to "take a turn" at an afterschool task for no salary increment, but very few would be willing to spend a series of consecutive nights in order to develop a continuous program. We expect to pay members of other professions for extra work, and when education is considered to be an investment, we will expect to pay teachers.

In preceding years teachers have, to a large extent, prescribed the types of activity to be provided in the afterschool program for the youth and adults in the community. This method is akin to the traditional method of teaching which did not incorporate an evaluation of the whole child and, therefore, did not meet his needs. Before the program for adults can be designed, the program sponsors must survey the needs, competencies, and desires of the people. For example, a "great books program" could not meet any need of a community in which the adult reading level was below that of the average seventh-grade pupil. In other words, the problem in planning the afterschool program is to start where the adults and youth *are* in their afterschool activities, not where we might *wish* they were.

A sociological analysis of the community will reveal important information about the following areas:

Geographical setting	Communication
Population background	Occupations
Population	Religion
Income groups	Education
Transportation	Organized groups

Recreational facilities

Information about these areas is not only essential in the determination of community needs, it is also available in any modern school city or district. For example, with this information it is possible to forecast the ease with which the people can come to the school (transportation); the recreational facilities that are already available to them (recreational facilities); the number of people, youth and adults, who are already participating in groups outside their school or work (organized groups), etc. In Part III of the *Special Report on Criterion 1*, the North Central Association attempted to approach this problem by analyzing other community agencies affecting education.[10] For illustrative purposes the following sections have been selected from this report:

RECREATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

Provision of varied types of recreation appropriate to people of all ages has come to be recognized as an important phase of community responsibility. Recreation may be provided at public expense or by non-profit private agencies. On a commercial basis for private profit, it is "big business." Much commercial recreation is open to criticism for its undesirable influence on public taste or morals, but the activities listed under this heading include some with definite social and educational values. In appraising the recreational opportunities of the community it is important to consider efforts being made to improve the quality of motion picture or radio programs, to eliminate undesirable features of public dance halls and skating rinks, and to insure adequate supervision of amusement places frequented by minors. Education and recreation have so many features in common that it is difficult to make a hard-and-fast distinction. Some activities presented below might with equal justification have been listed as "other educational agencies."

10 *Special Report on Criterion 1*, pp. 12–13, to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1949.

	Yes	No

1. Organization for public recreation.

   a. Is there a recreation council or board?.......................... ____ ____

   b. Is the council or board adequately financed?.................... ____ ____

   c. Is provision made for trained leadership?...................... ____ ____

   d. Do young people have a part in planning and directing those phases of the program applying to them?............................ ____ ____

   e. Has there been a survey to determine present coverage of recreational facilities and needed expansion?.............................. ____ ____

   Comments:

2. Parks.

   a. Is there a park (or recreation) department in local government?.... ____ ____

   b. Is the employed staff adequate?.............................. ____ ____

   c. Is there a definite plan for continued purchase and development of park areas?.. ____ ____

   d. Are parks so distributed as to be available for all sections of the community?.. ____ ____

   e. Check facilities available in parks in your community:

Playgrounds.................		Boating facilities............	____
Baseball diamonds......	____	Band shell.................	____
Football fields................	____	Bridle paths................	____
Tennis courts..........	____	Skating and other winter sports	____
Golf links....................	____	Botanical gardens............	____
Swimming pools..............	____	Zoological gardens............	____
Picnic grounds..............	____	Nature walks........	____
Camping sites..............	____	Other_____	____

   Comments:

In many communities the number of afterschool or work offerings could be increased in order to care for more needs if the duplication in offerings by various organizations were eliminated. In addition to decreasing the number of offerings, duplication is also expensive. Administrators of tax-supported social institutions such as schools, recreational departments, etc., should insist that their supervisors search for duplication of effort and arrange to abolish it.

From the simple rhythmic movements to complicated exercises, this phrase borrowed from the field of physical education epitomizes the scope of the afterschool and afterwork program. The school's general shop by day may house a class in antique furniture refinishing at night; children may use an elementary gymnasium for simple rhythmic expression during the day and adults may convert it into a ballroom at night; the auditorium may accommodate the school band, orchestra, and glee club during the school hours and become the public forum center for the community at night; public-school

outdoor recreational areas during the school days become public playgrounds for afterschool hours, throughout the week ends, and during the summer months. The possibilities of the entire community's using the school facilities to improve the general standard of living for the total community are limitless.

The major part of the equipment at the senior-high-school level is of adequate size to accommodate adults comfortably. At all other levels the major portion of the school furniture and furnishings is inadequate from the standpoint of adult comfort. It is extremely poor business to encourage the adult population, the people who support the educational program, to participate in an afterschool or afterwork program and expect them continuously to experience the discomfort of trying to adapt their bodies to furnishings designed for small children. Every school below the senior-high-school level should estimate the number of adults who are going to participate in the afterwork program, the type of activity each will select, and then obtain enough portable furniture to make comfortable those who select activities that require the use of furniture.

SUPERVISION OF THE AFTERSCHOOL OR WORK PROGRAM

The administrative staff is responsible to the school district or city for the care of the school's property. It would be very unfortunate if this staff turned over the keys to the school property to any group that requested them. It is also unfortunate when the administrative staff does not exert every effort to secure the necessary financial resources to employ additional supervisors, or to give salary increments to their present supervisory staff, in order to have trained personnel available to plan and supervise the afterschool program. As in all democratic practices, the insistence of the people could be the stimulant that would eventually cause the mobilization of the necessary financial and material resources. Before the people will insist that the program be expanded, they must be shown that they will receive a fair return on their increased investment, because the cost to the people will increase as the services are expanded. Here we have another illustration of the importance of the supervisor's function as an interpreter of the schools to the community and of the community to the teachers.

EVALUATION OF THE SCHOOL PLANT

(Does the community use the school plant to maximum advantage?)

Part Four

	Yes	No

IV. The afterschool, afterwork program.

A. Estimating the needs of the community.

1. Are the results of a community analysis available to the staff that is in charge of the program?.......................... ___ ___

2. Does the school provide a testing program for adults who desire such service?.................................. ___ ___

3. Does the administration have the results from questionnaires or check list indicating the preferences of the people for afterschool, afterwork activities?.............................. ___ ___

B. Financing the program.

1. Has the public been informed of the possibilities in the program? ___ ___

2. Has the public been invited to help plan the program?........ ___ ___

3. Does the public know how much the program will cost in terms of increased taxes?.................................. ___ ___

4. Has the school board been encouraged to make a public statement favoring the program?.............................. ___ ___

5. Has the school board agreed to the appropriation of money necessary to finance the program?.......................... ___ ___

C. Housing the program.

1. Does the administrator of the program have a complete inventory of the facilities that will be available?................. ___ ___

2. Have arrangements been made to decentralize the program wherever possible?.................................. ___ ___

3. Have arrangements been made for the custodial force to clean the building when the evening program is finished?............. ___ ___

4. Has furniture appropriate for adult use been provided in the necessary places?.................................. ___ ___

5. Do the adults understand the rules and regulations of the school pertaining to

a. Entering the building?.............................. ___ ___

b. Leaving the building?.............................. ___ ___

c. Smoking in the building?.............................. ___ ___

D. Staffing the program.

1. Have supervisors been appointed for the evening program?.... ___ ___

2. Have qualified teachers been retained for

a. Home arts instruction?.............................. ___ ___

b. Vocational arts instruction?.............................. ___ ___

c. Fine arts instruction?.............................. ___ ___

d. Academic instruction?.............................. ___ ___

e. Physical education instruction?.............................. ___ ___

f. Recreation instruction?.............................. ___ ___

g. Commercial instruction?.............................. ___ ___

h. Physical science instruction?.............................. ___ ___

i. Biological science instruction?.............................. ___ ___

j. Home mechanics instruction?.............................. ___ ___

3. Does the staff know where to procure the necessary materials?. ___ ___

	Yes	No

4. Is the staff acquainted with the policy concerning the assessment of fees?... ____ ____

5. Are all staff members familiar with the rules and regulations that apply to the administration of this program?................ ____ ____

E. Evaluating the program.

1. Have plans been made to incorporate the following persons into the evaluation of the afterschool program

    a. Pupils at the elementary level?......................... ____ ____

    b. Boys at the junior-high level?..... .... ____ ____

    c. Girls at the junior-high level?..... .... ____ ____

    d. Boys at the senior-high level?....... .... ____ ____

    e. Girls at the senior-high level?....... .... ____ ____

    f. Parents representative of all levels?...................... ____ ____

2. Have plans been made to incorporate the following persons into the evaluation of the afterwork program

    a. A community representative from the home arts division?.. ____ ____

    b. A community representative from the vocational arts division?.. ____ ____

    c. A community representative from the fine arts division?.... ____ ____

    d. A community representative from the academic division?... ____ ____

    e. A community representative from the physical education division?... ____ ____

    f. A community representative from the recreation division?.. ____ ____

    g. A community representative from the commercial division?. ____ ____

    h. A community representative from the physical science division?... ____ ____

    i. A community representative from the biological science division?... ____ ____

    j. A community representative from the home mechanics division?... ____ ____

3. Have arrangements been made to incorporate a staff member from each of the preceding areas of work into the evaluation?.. ____ ____

4. Have tentative arrangements been made for a method of reporting the results of the evaluation to

    a. Superintendent of schools?...... .. .. ____ ____

    b. The school board?..................................... ____ ____

    c. The administrative staff for the regular school day?........ ____ ____

    d. The supervisory staff for the regular school day?.......... ____ ____

    e. The teaching staff for the regular school day?............. ____ ____

    f. The administrative staff for the afterschool and afterwork program?.. ____ ____

    g. The supervisory staff for the afterschool and afterwork program?... ____ ____

    h. The teaching staff for the afterschool and afterwork program? ____ ____

    i. The participants in the afterschool and afterwork program? ____ ____

5. Have arrangements been made to incorporate the results of the evaluation into the future plans for the program?............ ____ ____

EQUIPMENT AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO THE PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED

In every school district or city, from the beginning of the primary division through the secondary school, there are children who need special educational care. The goal of public education is to provide for each child a program designed to meet his individual needs. At one time we segregated all physically handicapped children from the normal children and thus succeeded in handicapping them socially. We are finally realizing that if the physically handicapped child is at all capable of attending school with the normal pupils he should be encouraged to do so. However, there are in all large school districts or cities, and in many small ones, children who have such severe physical handicaps that they must be segregated into special schools for instruction and treatment. In our larger cities these schools are of beautiful design and are often equipped to offer many types of therapeutic treatment.

The youth who attend special schools need special work and supervision, but if they are eventually to assume their normal role in society, they must have the same types of general experiences that are offered in the regular schools. If one is inclined to doubt the importance which the role of equipment plays in the education of the normal child, he certainly will not doubt the importance of equipment in the education of the handicapped child. However, far too many people support the purchase of equipment for the handicapped child because of the emotional appeal that is involved. Our compassionate attitude toward those who are less fortunate than ourselves has been a contributing factor in the development of our place in world leadership. It is well that we think this way, but it is exceedingly unfortunate that we do not have the same emotional feeling when we willfully handicap normal boys and girls by depriving them of the increased educational advantages that are to be obtained from using the best school equipment.

It is a responsibility of the supervisory staff to determine the special facilities and program modifications that are needed to care adequately for handicapped pupils when they attend the regular schools. It is also a responsibility of this staff to maintain as normal a program as possible in the special schools. The greater the deviation of the program in the special schools from normal, the greater the handicap

for the children who will eventually move from the special to the regular school.

Each handicapped pupil has his own set of additional problems over and above those possessed by other pupils in his social group.

<div align="center">EVALUATION OF THE SCHOOL PLANT</div>

<div align="center">Part Five</div>

	Yes	No
V. Special schools.		
A. Does the school system provide special schools for physically handicapped pupils?		
1. If answer is yes, does this school provide		
a. All types of basic therapeutic treatment, *e.g.*, hydrotherapy, physiotherapy?		
b. Whenever possible, the same types of instructional experiences that are provided in the regular schools?		
c. An easy method for articulation between the special school and the regular schools?		
B. Does the school system maintain special schools as a normal function?		
C. Are the pupils in the special schools treated as patients? (Contrasted to treating them as "normal" boys and girls.)		
D. Have the teachers and supervisors in the special schools been trained to accept their added responsibilities?		
E. Are accurate and complete individual records maintained for each pupil?		

<div align="center">Part Six</div>

VI. Handicapped children in the regular schools.		
A. Are *remedial curriculum experiences* designed for the following types of handicaps		
1. Sight difficulties?		
2. Hearing difficulties?		
3. Social maladjustments?		
4. Mental retardation?		
5. Muscular weaknesses?		
6. Muscular abnormalities?		
7. Respiratory weaknesses?		
8. Dietary deficiencies?		
B. Are the programs for the handicapped pupils modified in order that		
1. They will have a minimum number of stairsteps to ascend or descend?		
2. They have a minimum amount of distance to travel between group meeting places?		
3. They have a locker assignment located on the route they travel most frequently?		
C. Does the school have a full-time nurse?		
D. Does the school have a doctor "on call" at all times?		
E. Do the teachers encourage the handicapped pupils to participate in as many school functions as possible?		

These unique problems may appear dominantly in one area or they may appear to be scattered equally through all the areas of the social, mental, emotional, and physical group. It will be especially difficult for evaluators to be objective when they evaluate a handicapped pupil, but if they intend to direct the pupil in such a way that he will make a more adequate adjustment to life, they must exert every effort to be objective.

SCHOOL, AN EXPERIENCE THAT WILL BE REMEMBERED

The story of a pupil's experiences in school cannot be told in terms of statistics, such as attendance, enrollment, revenue, and expenditures. The real story, the story basic to the democratic way of life, is one of youth learning to work and live together. Each young person is a unique individual from the standpoint of interests, sex, intelligence, physical health, home backgrounds, mental health, and race. These young people are the citizens of tomorrow; what America will be a generation or so from now will largely depend on the youth of today.

There is in our society much that is good and much that is bad. Public schools have been created in an attempt to stimulate all young people to preserve the good and to correct the bad. To accomplish this purpose the school curriculum must not only be preparation for life, it must be life itself.

The greater majority of our children look forward to the day when they will begin their school experiences. To these small children, school represents an open door to wonderland. As school years slip by, the wonderment that accompanied the first learning experiences diminishes. This diminishing is damnable because the more skillful a pupil becomes, the more his curiosity should be inflamed by progressively more challenging learning experiences. The teacher or supervisor who desires to direct his pupils toward the solution of more meaningful problems must accept the dedication that may be derived from the following lines: [11]

"You must give yourself." When we state this, we state the ultimate fact. The teacher must give himself to his subject and to his students—an intensely personal, intelligent, whole-souled giving—or the work fails.

[11] R. M. Saunders (ed.), *Education for Tomorrow*, The University of Toronto Press, Toronto, Ont., 1946.

There must be a devotion to and absorption in the material involved; there must be a delight in life especially young life, strong enough to push the teacher into understanding and to assist him to withstand the pressures of monotony and difficulty that beset him in his special task; and there must be that something within which supports the teacher in his giving, raising it from a taste or tendency into a resolved course.

There is much in this paragraph to stimulate any teacher or supervisor to engage in an active program of self-analysis. Opportunities for the creative teacher or supervisor to further the cause of intelligent democratic action are present in every day's experiences. These opportunities cannot be changed easily into actualities—the transition requires hard work by enthusiastic teachers who will always be the heart of the educational process.

School experiences will always be remembered; the question we must ultimately answer is: How will they be remembered?

SUMMARY

You cannot have a good school with four walls and a minimum of equipment. There is an acute school housing shortage, and in the face of high costs and our growing international emergencies, there is little prospect that the condition will be greatly improved in the near future.

We are faced with a continuing shortage of elementary teachers. When an understanding of this problem is linked with our school housing shortage, and the fact that we have not yet achieved our largest school enrollment, we begin to grasp the scope of the supervision problem that faces us today and in the future.

Part of our school housing problem is attributable to poor planning in the past. The modern school administrator realizes that each child develops as a totality. Consequently, if new school buildings are being designed or old buildings are being remodeled, the administrator will welcome the advice of his supervisors pertaining to the nature of the space and equipment needs in the new or remodeled buildings if the pupils are to have the best school experiences.

Increased school services require increased school costs. As an interpreter of the schools to the community, the supervisor must welcome and seek opportunities to explain the additional returns which a community receives when the investment in education is increased.

Chapter 12. THE PRESERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

Growth is considered to be a continuous process. Beginning teachers frequently run into difficulty because the educational theory to which they have been exposed in their preservice training does not seem to function in practice. At this juncture in their professional lives, young teachers need, and for the most part desire, competent supervision.

It is always desirable that a gap exist between theory and practice—such is the nature of theory. It is not desirable that the realization of the existence of this gap should abruptly block the thinking of a young teacher who is trying to make a successful beginning. Situations of this type would probably exist to a lesser extent if those responsible for supervision in the field could form a closer working relationship with those responsible for the work in teacher-training institutions. The training of teachers is a responsibility that must be accepted by the total profession; the task cannot be successfully accomplished if there is a sharp demarcation between preservice training and actual practice.

Those educators who are responsible for the preservice training program must accept many responsibilities. The most important of these responsibilities is the construction and the establishment of the sequence of professional education courses. Unfortunately many teacher-training institutions have attempted to modernize their programs by adding or reshuffling courses when they should have evaluated their programs through research and consultations with public-school teachers, supervisors, and administrators in order to determine the needs of teachers in modern schools. The major part of the preservice education of teachers should be directly designed to meet teacher needs. This does not mean that theory should be excluded from the program, for where there is no theory there will be no advancement in the educational process. It is important to remember

that theory can be a teacher need just as a more efficient method of checking attendance might be a teacher need.

Beginning teachers should be encouraged to turn to their supervisors for help when they are encountering difficulty, when they need additional security in order to try new methods, or when they desire additional evaluations of themselves or projects with which they are experimenting. When our profession has gained the status it rightfully deserves, teachers will turn to their supervisors for help and evaluations in order to increase their effectiveness.

In order to organize our thinking about the preservice training of teachers, let us assume that the staff of a state teacher-training institution has just conducted a series of workshops with the public-school supervisors in the state. The purpose of these workshops was to evaluate the institution's preservice-training program. The report that developed as a result of the evaluation program set forth the recommendations which follow:

The preservice-training program should

1. Provide an adequate guidance program so that those unfit for teaching may be guided away from the profession and those qualified for teaching may be better oriented to the challenge that awaits them.

2. Provide prospective teachers with an adequate amount of subject-matter content so they will be able to plan effectively and have confidence before the groups to which they are assigned.

3. Provide information about the scope, development, and philosophy of education in order that prospective teachers may become well-informed and efficient leaders of public education in the communities in which they teach.

4. Provide prospective teachers with a knowledge of the fundamental laws of learning and experiences in using varied methods and materials that employ these laws.

5. Provide prospective teachers with a knowledge of the basic information they need in order to survey effectively the sociological forces that have a direct effect on the educational program in the communities in which they live.

6. Provide prospective teachers with a knowledge of accepted methods of evaluation and the implications that the results of evaluation have for those who have been evaluated and their associates.

7. Provide prospective teachers with experiences in adapting materials and methods of instruction to meet the needs of the levels of ability commonly found in a public school.

8. Provide prospective teachers with an opportunity for student teaching at all levels for which *they will be certified.*

9. Provide prospective teachers with an opportunity, under competent leadership, to evaluate the results of their student teaching period.

10. Provide a "follow-up" service for the new teacher in order to help him adequately adjust to his new teaching position.

A cursory examination of the preceding ten-point program may incline one to think that a few new features have been added to the traditional teacher-training program, but that basically it is like the traditional program. On the other hand, the reader may think that this proposed program is too theoretical, that it cannot work. To dispel these beliefs it is necessary to elaborate each point and to offer suggestions that should aid in the implementation of the adoption of this program by all educational personnel who are interested in the improvement of teacher training.

THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM FOR PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

At the present time far too many people believe that anyone who has successfully acquired a college diploma can teach. These same people consider the study of education courses to be a requirement that needs to be filled in order to gain state certification rather than a curriculum that will make candidates for the teaching profession more capable directors of the educational process. The teaching profession is responsible for part of this attitude as exhibited by its willingness to accept anyone in its professional organizations who can pay the required dues. If the educational profession is to become increasingly stronger, the attitude that anyone can be a teacher must be dispelled.

Teacher Supply and Demand. It is difficult to think about adopting a more refined method of selecting candidates for the teaching profession at a time when there is an acute shortage of elementary teachers. While we have a shortage of elementary teachers, we have a tremendous oversupply of teachers in most secondary-school areas. This situation leads one to think that our profession might be much stronger if its candidates were being trained so that they could effectively teach and be employed at any level in the school system. This would not mean that all specialists would be deleted from the

profession. It would mean that the greater majority of our teacher candidates would be trained to become general teachers.

The imbalance between supply and demand for teachers is a problem for the *entire profession*. As Maul states: "Teaching cannot rise to true professional status until aggressive, cooperative action points toward the establishment and maintenance of a close balance between supply and demand." [1] The imbalance between supply and demand is shown in tabular form [2] on page 265. These tables are produced on the basis of information gathered from eighteen states, Alaska, the District of Columbia, and Hawaii, but there is no evidence that the condition is dissimilar in the states not represented in this report. An example of the great discrepancy existing between supply and demand is revealed by line number 18 in the table where we find the reporting states employed 1,953 new social science teachers for September, 1949, while the colleges and universities in the same states produced 4,418 new candidates.

Table B on page 265 furnishes an excellent example of the relationship between the problem of supply and demand to the task of supervision as it is increased when teachers with obvious substandard qualifications are employed. In September, 1949, there was a demand for 20,744 elementary teachers in eighteen states, Alaska, the District of Columbia, and Hawaii. The colleges and universities in these same areas trained only 11,391 teachers who were entitled to standard certificates, and of this number 4,520 or almost 40 per cent of the teachers were granted their certificates on the basis of one-, two-, or three-year programs of preparation. [3] The states employed in this study represent approximately one-third of the total population of the nation; consequently, when the preceding figures are increased proportionately, the result is a rather close approximation of the size of this problem for the nation. All persons interested in a constantly improving system of public education should encourage the pur-

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[1] R. C. Maul, "Implications of the 1950 National Study of Teacher Supply and Demand," *The Journal of Teacher Education,* Vol. 1, No. 2, p. 98, June, 1950.

[2] R. C. Maul, *Teacher Supply and Demand in the United States,* p. 15, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1950.

[3] Of these 11,391 elementary teachers, 6,871 received certificates based on 120 semester hours, 914 on 90 semester hours, 2,728 on 60 semester hours, and 878 on 30 semester hours.

TABLE A. DEMAND FOR TEACHERS *

TABLE B. SUPPLY OF TEACHERS †

Line number — Major assignment	1 Agriculture	2 Art	3 Commerce	4 English	5 Foreign language	6 Home economics	7 Industrial art	8 Journalism	9 Library science	10 Mathematics	11 Music	12 Physical ed.—men	13 Physical ed.—women	14 General science	15 Biology	16 Chemistry	17 Physics	18 Social science	19 Speech	20 Other	21 Total 'demand' for teachers	Total 'supply' of teachers
1. Agriculture	391		3	2																	461	716
2. Art	4	138		2																	300	619
3. Commerce			876																		1,230	1,688
4. English				1,082																	2,278	2,764
5. Foreign language																					1,149	659
6. Home economics						859															635	350
7. Industrial arts							394															1,141
8. Journalism																					29	52
9. Library science									156												244	117
10. Mathematics										633											1,178	1,303
11. Music											862										934	2,615
12. Physical ed.—men												490									590	858
13. Physical ed.—women													376								309	968
14. General science																					179	884
15. Biology															149						113	488
16. Chemistry																						225
17. Physics																						
18. Social sciences																		1,091			1,953	4,418
19. Speech																			108		213	466
20. Other																				169	219	669
21. High-school total																					14,493	23,530
Elementary-school total (one-room) 4,055; lower grades 4,892; upper grades 4,417; not elective 7,415																					20,744	11,391

* Number of persons who entered high-school and elementary-school teaching positions in September, 1949, and who did not teach anywhere during the 1948–1949 school year. Based on reports from: Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Illinois, Kansas, Maryland, Minnesota, Missouri (in small communities), New Mexico, North Carolina, Ohio, South Dakota, Utah, Virginia (in Virginia the report is 100 per cent complete. The missing 10 per cent is in small communities), Nebraska, New Hampshire, . . . and Wisconsin. . . . Lines 1 through 21 inclusive show new high-school teachers according to assignments. No person was counted twice. Line 22 shows the total of 391 new high-school teachers. Read the table thus: in line 1 a total of 391 new high-school teachers in September, 1949, obtained positions teaching full-time agriculture; 3 teach agriculture as a major and commerce as a minor assignment; 2 teach agriculture as a major and English as a minor assignment; in line 2 a total of 4 new high-school teachers in September, 1949, obtained positions teaching agriculture as a minor assignment; 138 teach full-time art; 2 teach art as a major and English as a minor assignment; 2 each art as a minor assignment; 24 teach art as a . . .

† Number of college and university students (in same geographic areas shown in Table A) who completed courses of study in 1949 entitling them to standard certificates.

suance of an aggressive program to raise the qualifications of all teachers who have received less than four years of training.

Aims for the Guidance Program. Educators everywhere are greatly concerned about their responsibility toward teacher candidates. This concern is frequently centered in the first professional education course for prospective teachers. If the educational profession is to become progressively stronger, the process of selecting candidates for the profession must be constantly refined. This selective process should operate to a degree before the candidates are admitted to their first professional education course. The candidates who do gain admission to the first professional education course should be carefully evaluated and guided to ensure that only candidates who have the greatest potential ability to develop the personal and professional attributes of the successful teacher will be permitted to continue the training in professional education.

Guidance must always consider the potentialities of each student; consequently, the guidance function of the first professional education course should aim to help each applicant for teacher training to:

1. Discover and analyze his abilities, needs, aptitudes, and interests.

2. Associate his abilities, needs, aptitudes, and interests with his selection of a program of study.[4]

3. Gain admittance to the professional school or major program of study for which he has the abilities, needs, aptitudes, and interests.

4. Adjust properly to the professional school or major program of study to which he has been recommended and in which he has been accepted.

5. Utilize all the services of the college, university, or training school to meet his adjustment needs.

At one time it would have been impossible for any teacher-training institution to meet the demands of these aims. We now have a great body of research that has established the personal and professional attributes that are to be desired in a candidate for teaching. We also

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[4] This type of guidance service should be performed for each student before he is admitted to training in a professional school or on a major program of study. The discussion at this point is presented with the assumption that, with the exception of requiring a specific academic standard, most teacher-training institutions do not attempt to judge the potential personal and professional attributes of teacher candidates before admitting them to the first professional education course.

have objective tests with which to measure the needs, interests, abilities, and aptitudes of persons who ultimately desire to enter the teaching profession. It is a responsibility of public-school educators and staff members at teacher-training institutions to come together and establish a pattern for using the available research and tests in order to select the best qualified applicants to continue in the professional education sequence of courses. As professional teachers, it is also the responsibility of these people to help those who are refused admission to the professional education sequence to select and adjust to a program of study that is in harmony with their abilities, needs, aptitudes, and interests.

SUBJECT-MATTER CONTENT FOR PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

The changing nature of our life demands that we change the nature of the curriculum in our public schools. At one time the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic was considered sufficient to meet the educational needs of the people who were fortunate enough to be able to attend school. The modern school cannot be satisfied with providing routine instruction in such skill subjects, because the life adjustment needs of our youth require that they also have ample opportunity to develop attitudes and competencies in areas that basically involve a consideration of human relationships. Modern youth have so many needs that all educators must soon face the problem of determining, and perhaps limiting, the scope of public-school services.

The human-relations aspect of youth needs is clearly set forth in *American Education and International Tensions:* [5]

THE OUTLOOK

Every person now enrolled in our schools and colleges may expect to live most of his life in the second half of the twentieth century. What will be the major characteristics of that epoch? The world of the future, as we strive to see it emerging from the past and the present, appears almost certain to be a world of contradictions; of awkward choices and of calculated risks; of apparently incompatible situations, which nevertheless do somehow exist contemporaneously. The central problem of the

[5] *American Education and International Tensions*, p. 1, Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1949.

American citizen in that period, as at present, will be to reconcile these contradictions; to steer a course of action for the republic between distasteful but unavoidable options. In this emerging world situation two major pairs of contradictory forces are rather clearly outlined.

The first of these paradoxes is that of a world brought closer together and yet of a world split asunder. Science and technology have made the world seem small and compact. International machinery of unparalleled variety and complexity has been created. Yet at the very same time the world is deeply divided.

The second paradox is that of a world sorely afraid and yet incurably hopeful. Before the scars of the last war are healed, military preparations proceed apace. Psychological tensions increase almost to the breaking point. But while men fear, they are permitted also to hope. They dare to plan, perhaps because they must, for the future of themselves, of their families, of their country, of the world.

In a world of paradoxes the teacher candidate who is preparing to direct the educational process in the second half of this century cannot adequately prepare himself by planning to teach a particular subject at the secondary level or a particular age group at the primary or intermediate levels. For many years we have denied the truth that growth is a continuous process by arbitrarily dividing the public-school program into a series of levels and training teachers for each specific level. At one time we even carried this division so far that we trained elementary and secondary teachers in separate institutions. Teachers have been very reluctant to agree to a common professional preparation for all teachers. As a result one can become a secondary-school teacher of literature and have no concept of the methods used to teach primary children to read, and in many instances, not know how to diagnose reading problems at the secondary level.

The arbitrary selection of types of knowledge and learning experiences to offer our youth at the various levels of school organization was first made before much was known about pupil readiness in the various areas. As a result supervisors have had to solve a tremendous problem related to the regrouping of students and of subject-matter experiences. For example, a teacher cannot indefinitely fail a low ability boy and force him to remain in the intermediate division of a public school without violating the respect he should have for the pupil and without violating his professional responsibility to help

the pupil make an adequate life adjustment. However, because this teacher has been trained as an intermediate-grade teacher, he has a limited knowledge of the educational experiences that have been provided before the intermediate level and has less notion of the experiences that are normally provided beyond it. The situation is further handicapped because the teacher is not permitted to promote pupils who do not attain a specific amount of academic competence. Here the supervisor has a situation in which the teachers' preparation is so limited that he cannot provide for individual pupils, and promotion regulations prevent him from moving the pupil to a teacher at a grade level where adequate provision can be made for the student's needs. There is no immediate solution for such a situation, but it furnishes good supervisors with an opportunity to re-emphasize that the problems of a particular subject or grade level cannot be fully comprehended save in their relationship to general knowledge. In other words, if teachers were trained to teach at all levels, they would be better trained to make provision for individual differences regardless of where they appear.

The result of conditions probably similar to those mentioned in the preceding paragraph can be illustrated in part by the following example. The Iowa Life Adjustment Commission interviewed dropouts to ascertain why these young people had left school. The commission reports the following five answers: [a] (1) preferred work rather than school; (2) needed money to buy clothes and help at home; (3) not interested in schoolwork; (4) could not learn and was discouraged; (5) was failing and did not want to repeat. In their report, the commission includes the following five questions addressed to Iowa schools but applicable to many schools:

1. What are you doing to challenge the 5% of the pupils in your school system who are gifted individuals?

2. What are you doing to help the handicapped pupil to become better adjusted?

3. Are you educating all youth to meet their imperative needs in a democratic society, such as education for family life, consumer economics, functional citizenship, good work habits, proper use of leisure time, and human relations?

[a] These statements and the following five questions have been selected from a report by the Iowa Life Adjustment Commission.

4. Have you surveyed the needs and desires of your pupils?

5. Is the curriculum in your school flexible enough to respond to the known needs of the youth who remain in school?

The teacher who has been trained to teach a particular subject or a particular age level cannot answer these questions in the affirmative. We are not advocating that all teachers should be qualified to teach all things, but we are advocating that a teacher's preparation should be broad enough to permit him to move easily from one level of school organization to another, and broad enough so that he can at least be an informed point of referral for most student problems. A faculty composed of teachers with this broader type of training can easily be directed by their supervisors to develop positive, workable answers to questions such as the preceding ones.

Intergroup Relations. Teacher-training institutions must become increasingly concerned about the problem of improving human relations. To help teachers better understand the problems of intergroup relations, the American Council on Education published in 1950 the report of a four-year study conducted in twenty-four of the nation's colleges and universities. This report contains detailed accounts of the methods used in these institutions to prepare teachers to be more qualified to handle problems in this difficult area. The following "college study goals" [7] for this area will reveal the nature of this study:

1. To study and appraise in child and adult life the role of race, creed, immigrant cultures, rural-urban and class-level differences.

2. To create in colleges and schools a total environment in which all persons are viewed, valued, and treated in terms of their personal worth.

3. To teach prospective teachers a deeper concern for, and a fuller understanding of, human relations in the school and outside, and to increase their group management skills.

4. To make basic improvements in teacher-educating programs in respect to their emphasis on human relations, and to diffuse these changes within the profession.

5. To work directly, and to cooperate actively, with local groups, state and national agencies, for the progressive democratization of our common life.

[7] L. A. Cook (director), *College Programs in Intergroup Relations*, p. 8, American Council on Education, 1950.

Teachers who have been trained to teach a specific subject or grade level will have difficulty in developing an awareness to the fact that the intergroup attitudes of growing children can be modified through a continuous program of education. These teachers will have this trouble because they will not be sufficiently conscious of the form that a continuous program of education should take. These teachers will be limited by their own attitudes, skills, and knowledge. As a result of these limitations these teachers will be poor directors of the educational process.

An Example of a Modern Program for Teacher Education. Up to this point, the desirability of generalizing the type and increasing the amount of content required of teacher candidates has been presented. When content is separated, even for discussion purposes, from the other aspects of the teacher-training program, it seems stilted and artificial. This is bound to be true because the teacher-training program must be a whole, not a collection of fragments. Consequently, the example which follows and the recommendations which are presented at a later point consider content to be an integral part of a whole program.

This particular program has been selected for an example because it is basically in harmony with the recommendations that will be made to facilitate the thinking of those educators who want to change from a traditional to a modern program of teacher education. Two fundamental differences will be noted between this program and the recommendations. First, teachers are classified as secondary and elementary, thus contributing to the present professional problem of supply and demand. Second, the directed teaching (student teaching) experience is of one semester in duration and apparently confined basically to the activities of one master teacher.

A PROGRAM FOR TEACHER EDUCATION [8]

GENERAL EDUCATION

This program includes a plan for both general and professional education. Each is intended to supplement the other. General education is the base of the program. The college has stated its general education goals as follows:

[8] G. Kendall, "Learning Experiences for Future Teachers," *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 7, No. 2, pp. 85–86, November, 1949.

To provide a basic education that will help our students to develop as individuals and as responsible members of our democratic society. To these ends we are organizing a series of educative experiences in the following broad areas:

The development of the individual.

Home and family living.

Choice of occupation or profession in line with the individual student's abilities and interests.

The development of the individual as a citizen in a democratic society.

This program consists of forty-five units of courses, including laboratory experiences and activities, recreation, and creative opportunities in music, art, drama. While it is hoped that most of the forty-five units will be covered in the first two years, there is no attempt to keep students from taking courses in their major fields of interest after that time, when the plan has been carefully thought through. Specific requirements vary with the experience, ability, and future goals of the student. Decisions on individual programs are made by the student in consultation with the counseling staff.

As the general education program has developed, the following basic assumptions have been recognized:

The maximum personal and social development of the individual student is a major goal of general education. The content and the method of education must relate directly to the life problems and basic needs of the students, individually and collectively.

Effective general education requires combined emphasis upon instruction and guidance. Education cannot consist merely of teaching reshuffled subject matter. Of central importance in general education is the development of a close personal relationship between students and faculty. The more direct and individualized this relationship becomes the more effectively it promotes student growth.

Effective general education requires the maximum integration of content to provide for the clarification of the relationships among the various course offerings in general education. Integration is made difficult, even impossible, to attain when separate courses serve as the sole basis for the presentation of the content of general education.

The integration of content in general education rests finally upon the provision for a close working relationship among the members of the teaching staff.

Effective general education requires the utmost freedom and flexibility in programming, planning, and teaching approach.

THE PROFESSIONAL PROGRAM

FOUR MAJOR AREAS

In the case of elementary teachers who normally receive credentials at the end of a four-year period of study, the professional courses begin with the junior year. Secondary teachers normally receive their credentials at the end of a five-year period of study. The first two years are devoted to the general education program; the next two years are concentrated on major anad minor teaching fields and in rounding out a program providing for individual interests. The fifth year at this institution is devoted to professional studies for secondary credential candidates.

The professional program may be divided roughly into four major areas:

1. Competence in "subject matter" to be taught.

For the elementary teacher this includes a block of elementary school subjects, grouped into a "minor." For the secondary teacher it includes the teaching major and minor.

2. Understanding the nature of the learner and the nature of the society in which the learner lives.

This is a large block of work done under the joint direction of two staff members—one in education and one in psychology. This course requires observation in the Laboratory School and in the community together with first-hand experience in working with children or young people in out-of-school activities.

3. Curriculum and instruction in the subjects to be taught.

This block of work consists of a number of activities and experiences in the workshops with major emphasis on the actual preparation of instructional materials together with a study of teaching methods to provide for individual abilities and interests.

4. Directed teaching and problem seminar.

Students spend a full day for a semester in an actual school and community situation. They report to the college regularly one day a week—late in the afternoon—for the seminar. They engage in these activities under the close supervision of a master teacher and the general supervision of a college staff member. The college supervising instructor has the responsibility for the seminar.

As far as possible, instruction in the college professional courses sets an example in teaching method for the elementary or secondary program which is being studied. Central to these experiences and their implica-

tions is the thought that a teacher must be a relaxed individual who enjoys his job. Prospective teachers, therefore, need opportunities to develop confidence in their capacities and abilities to see the job through and, along with that, a warm friendliness in dealing with people.

Recommendations for Developing the Content Background of Teacher Candidates in a Modern Teacher-training Institution. Almost all learning is of a social nature, and for the average citizen it is of little value unless used in, or related to, problems in everyday living. Consequently, when we think of redesigning the teacher-training curriculum we must place the emphasis on the relationship of human beings to their environment in a democratic society. To accomplish this purpose four basic recommendations must be considered:

1. The teacher training program should be based on a two-year program of general education. The program of general education should include a study of those nonspecialized activities that will develop the teacher training applicant's total personality. As a result of this development, the applicant should be enabled to think critically, to communicate thoughts effectively, and to choose discriminatingly between life's values.

2. Following his admission to the professional education school the candidate should begin to study in a major area, for example, human relations or language arts and communication.

The human relations area would be based on the belief that all cultures have a method or methods of regenerating their beliefs and practices. It would include a study of the democratic concept of life and would emphasize the advantages of the democratic concept over any other form of societal organization. Historically this area would develop an appreciation of the influence of the past on our present method of living and would lead individuals to see that this method is still developing. Interculturally this area would develop an appreciation of the interdependency of men and would include a study of the ways in which men have solved their problems of living together.

This program should prepare the teacher candidate to develop a unit with first-grade children, for example, How We Live in Our School; or a topic at the twelfth-grade level, for example, Why Do Our Community, State, and Nation Spend Money and Effort in Educating Our Youth?

3. Following his admission to the professional education school, and at the same time that he begins to study in his major area, the candidate should begin to study in a minor area. This area would be composed of comprehensive survey courses, for example, The Senior-high-school Cur-

riculum; Self-improvement in Public-school Teaching; Group Techniques at the Primary Level.

4. Following his admission to the professional education school, and at the same time that he begins to study in his major and minor areas, the candidate should begin his professional work in education. This work will include a study of community problems; the nature of human growth and development followed by specific considerations of infant development, child growth and development, adolescent growth and development; the origin and development of the public-school movement, the development of the objectives for education, the relationship of the objectives for education to the culture of a people; methodology in the adaptation of learning materials, the use of sensory equipment, the proper use of evaluative techniques, the development of democratic procedures in group work; observation and exploratory student-teaching experiences at a minimum of three grade levels; student-teaching internships at a minimum of two grade levels.

To develop this program adequately with candidates for the teaching profession would probably require a four-year period beyond the two-year general education requirement. Many factors in each situation would determine the allotment of time to each of the categories of experience. At this point it is pertinent to recommend that the student-teaching internship should be one year in length and the student teacher should receive some monetary compensation for his efforts.

THE FOUNDATIONS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

At the present time it is impossible to find a universally accepted definition of the function of education in our society. For example, at one extreme we find many people who believe that teaching is simply the impartation of knowledge. At the other extreme we find many who believe that education is the development of that program of learning experiences which grow directly out of the felt needs and interests of the learners. Between these extremes one will find many degrees of difference represented by an equal number of definitions. Actually it is impossible to define the function of education unless the objectives for education are known. It is likewise impossible to understand the objectives unless one understands the culture from which they have emanated.

The teaching profession is making a continued attempt to gain

status in our society, and one obstacle in the path of this advance is that the general public does not understand the place or importance of the teaching profession. If the general public is to be directed toward this understanding, it is mandatory that every teacher be able to discuss intelligently the foundations upon which our present system of public education is based. Undoubtedly teacher candidates will learn much of the information about the foundations of education through their general education program. However, it is important that teaching candidates realize a certain homogeneity in their thinking about this area. The only way this homogeneity can be realized is for the information to be taught in the professional education work.

The Function of Public Schools. In all cultures the school, or educational system of the culture, is the principal agency for perpetuating the beliefs and purposes of the culture and for stimulating the advancement of it. The perpetuation and the stimulation are accomplished by producing modifications in the behavior of maturing children and young adults. The problem for all educators is to come together and select those things in our culture that should be perpetuated and to determine the areas in which progress is desired. The objectives for education will eventually be representative of the areas in which perpetuation and progress are desired.

Historically it is desirable for the teacher candidates to understand the contributions of other cultures to our cultural concept of education. It is also desirable for them to realize that our concept of education is, and must always be, in a process of development.

The Concept of Democracy. It is absolutely mandatory that every teacher be able to trace and explain the development of the democratic concept. Teachers must realize that democracy is all inclusive in its scope including the economic, social, and emotional aspects of life as well as the political. Teachers must realize that the basic goal of democracy is to understand and appreciate the importance and the place of the individual in our society.

In a society in which men are so very interdependent, it is of vast importance for the teacher to understand how men have solved their problems of living together. In the consideration of this problem, the emphasis must again be placed on the educational, social, political, and cultural aspects of the relationship. The relationship and

the values that men derive from it are constantly changing, and the culture, represented by men, that survives is the one that can adjust to, and control, change. In its finest sense, the democratic human relationship of men is built upon spiritual values which incorporate the realization that man cannot walk alone but must turn to, and accept, other men as his brothers.

Because human relationships and the values accruing to them change, the members of a dynamically free democratic society must learn to employ spiritual values when evaluation choices change. The man who can turn to, and accept, his brother has actually realized that all individuals are dissimilar, but if they share the privileges and duties of a democratic state, they will all profit and live more fully because the unique abilities of each will be developed to a maximum.

A Foundations Summary. The American Revolution was scarcely finished before a series of proposals concerning the place and function of education in the new independent nation began to appear. These proposals were conditioned by many conflicting forces, for example, the existence of definite social-economic classes, the feeling that only an aristocracy of breeding and wealth should be educated, state sovereignty, sectional animosity, the influence of the frontier, a rising nationalistic feeling, and the emphasis placed on democracy and human perfectability by the liberalists of the eighteenth century —all are representative of these forces. It is important to realize that forces originating outside the educational movement conditioned and controlled it. Moving from the immediate post-revolutionary period to the present, we find the situation to be somewhat analogous in that our schools of today are definitely influenced by pressures which originate outside the schools. This condition mandates that some professional education personnel interpret the community for the teachers; in this text it has been recommended that this responsibility be assigned to the supervisors. This condition also supports the challenge, previously issued in this text, for administrators to adopt some plan for objectively identifying the influences in the school community which definitely affect the program of education.

A great many people do not realize that the public schools represent only one of the socializing agencies in our community life and that this agency is subject to pressures which arise outside of its

immediate organization. By socializing we mean that society employs the schools to transmit to the youth an understanding of the requirements to which all must conform, not that the schools must make our youth subservient. From the preceding statements we may draw the conclusion that the basic foundation of our schools is our culture. By developing an appreciation of the origin, the present status, and probable future trends of this culture, we are able to mobilize the information we need to understand or to develop the objectives for education.

Within our culture we can readily identify some ideas which support the basic foundation of our educational program. First, we assign the place of primary importance to the individual, but through our process of education we develop with him the understanding that it is mutually advantageous for him and all the other individuals in our culture to impose certain limits upon themselves. Second, because the individuals are the originators of the limits, they can change and modify the limits any time they so desire. Because change must never be made for a transient reason, and because the concept of our culture is still developing, our youth must learn intelligently to create, control, and adjust to change. Third, our culture glorifies the individual but stimulates him to understand that men who come together to develop a culture necessarily become interdependent. Men who are interdependent can advantageously maintain this interdependency only as long as it is based on spiritual values. Fourth, the concept of life that recognizes the place and importance of the individual, that bases the interdependent relationships of men upon spiritual values, is known as democracy; and as a concept of life democracy must prevail in the educational, cultural, and social as well as the political relationships of men.

In a very brief form, the thoughts presented above represent a generalized overview of the nature of the foundations upon which our system of education is built. The teachers in the modern schools of America need a thorough understanding of these foundations in order to participate in the development of a modern and adequate program of education for our youth. In cooperation with their supervisors the teachers should employ their knowledge of the foundations to explain to the public reasons for the nature and direction of the program of modern education.

METHODS OF TEACHING

Methods of teaching that are not based upon our knowledge of human growth and development and our concepts of democracy have prevailed in our schools for many years. This condition has not existed without reason, for example, teacher overload, poor physical facilities, poor public relations, etc., have all but forced teachers to employ the most expedient methods. If our educational process is to become increasingly more effective, we must concentrate on the use of the best methods and attempt to modify our practices so that best becomes synonymous with expedient.

Status of Method in 1950. Benjamin [9] has furnished us with a concise retrospective statement of the status of teaching methods in 1950.

. . . the practice of education was still largely a matter of fitting the learner into pre-conceived blocks of experience. In spite of much talk about doing otherwise, schools of all kinds were commonly organized and operated as mills for grinding unique individuals down to less uniqueness. This was done in 1950, much as it had been done in 1850, or 1350. Learning experiences were organized in blocks, not with individual learners in mind but with various all generalizations as guides; e.g., all children nine years old who have made normal progress must learn simple fractions, all high school students must study Macbeth, all prospective physicians must have two years of Latin, all this, all that.

It is true that we have often prescribed experiences for our youth without giving much consideration to the needs of youth. Without an examination of the needs of youth, we have given them blocks of works saying, "This is good for you, take it, then you will be better." The change from this practice to utilizing every bit of psychological, social, biological, and intellectual information we can gather about an individual child before attempting to plan educational experiences with him has indeed been slow. New investigations into large and small group techniques have helped us immeasurably to progress toward better methods of teaching.

Trends in Methods of Teaching. We are realizing that classroom methods are most effective when they are directly related to the objectives for education. To cause students to develop democratic attitudes requires the use of democratic teaching and learning

[9] H. Benjamin, "Peddiwell in the Twenty-first Century," *The Newsletter of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education,* Vol. 4, No. 4, April, 1950.

methods. It is impossible to promote the democratic concept of life through the use of authoritative, dictatorial procedures. Discussion, individual and group interaction, and response are preferred to the unilateral presentation of information by the teacher. Education for the purpose of making an adequate life adjustment to the democratic way of living involves the development of specific types of attitudes, competencies, and behavioral reactions. Consequently, the teacher in the modern school evaluates attitudes, competencies, and behavioral reactions, and the evaluation (testing would be a more appropriate word) of a student's command of factual information becomes less important.

Kindergarten and primary teachers have taken the lead in the development of individual patterns of learning experiences designed on the basis of a study of the individual. Teachers at the intermediate and junior-high-school level are beginning to follow the lead of the primary teachers. Teachers at the senior-high-school level are rather generally clinging tenaciously to the methods of the past. In many instances the senior-high-school teachers and their supervisors have little choice in this matter because they are under the pressure of certain powerful outside influences that seldom, if ever, interfere with the primary teachers. In the future we hope to see teachers treating all youth as unique individuals and utilizing all the social, emotional, interest, aptitude, and intellectual information about each one of them in order to organize a pattern of learning experiences that meet the needs of each individual.

THE TEACHER PREPARES TO STUDY THE COMMUNITY

Teachers are primarily concerned with what and how our youth learn. The more effective teachers realize that a large percentage of our youth are doing about as well as they can in school, considering the fact that social pressures and out-of-school environment impede in-school progress. Intelligent teachers always address themselves to the social and environmental problems of the school-community environment because they know that each locality has its individual problems to solve. In considering the effect of social and environmental problems upon the progress of youth at school, the realistic teacher will realize that there are nonthreatening and threatening social-environmental problems and he will always consider the latter type first.

The Basis of Social Conflict. Davis [10] makes the following statement concerning social conflict:

Probably the most obvious cause of social hostility in modern society is the struggle for wealth and power, both intensely desired yet basically scarce. Wealth commands countless goods and services. It is thus the chief symbol of success and prestige. . . .

Like wealth, power is both scarce and highly desired. Wealth and power, of course, shade into each other, but of the two, power is less explicitly a popular goal. No society could risk the destructiveness that would accompany unlimited power-seeking. Hence every society sharply restricts power-seeking. Even so, the social equilibrium is frequently an uneasy one.

The truth of these statements will be obvious to most educational personnel. One of the chief sources of all conflict in the development of our country has been the utilitarian desire for wealth and power exhibited by a great percentage of our people. Our competitive system has unwittingly contributed, as a stimulant to our people, to cause them to desire wealth and power as ends rather than means to ends. In other words, there is nothing wrong with competition, wealth, or power if they become a means to promoting better human relationships in a better environment for all of our people. The development of a constructive attitude toward competition, wealth, and power is a major problem for public education today.

There is a strong probability that the average citizen does not spend a great amount of time considering the nature of power and wealth in our society, because power and wealth as entities are rather far removed from the average individual. However, there are areas of social conflict, derived sometimes from competition, wealth, and power, that are very close to all of us. For example, we are aware of clashes that have occurred in our larger cities between youthful gangs composed of Jews and Christians, Whites and Negroes. We all realize that a great many people, friends and neighbors of ours, have anti-Catholic, anti-Protestant, anti-Negro, etc., sentiments. These "anti-" sentiments cannot be abolished overnight or by passing a law; they can only be abolished through a program of education.

[10] A. K. Davis, "Understanding Social Conflict," in *Improving Human Relations,* H. H. Cummings, ed., National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin 25, p. 21, 1949.

methods. It is impossible to promote the democratic concept of life through the use of authoritative, dictatorial procedures. Discussion, individual and group interaction, and response are preferred to the unilateral presentation of information by the teacher. Education for the purpose of making an adequate life adjustment to the democratic way of living involves the development of specific types of attitudes, competencies, and behavioral reactions. Consequently, the teacher in the modern school evaluates attitudes, competencies, and behavioral reactions, and the evaluation (testing would be a more appropriate word) of a student's command of factual information becomes less important.

Kindergarten and primary teachers have taken the lead in the development of individual patterns of learning experiences designed on the basis of a study of the individual. Teachers at the intermediate and junior-high-school level are beginning to follow the lead of the primary teachers. Teachers at the senior-high-school level are rather generally clinging tenaciously to the methods of the past. In many instances the senior-high-school teachers and their supervisors have little choice in this matter because they are under the pressure of certain powerful outside influences that seldom, if ever, interfere with the primary teachers. In the future we hope to see teachers treating all youth as unique individuals and utilizing all the social, emotional, interest, aptitude, and intellectual information about each one of them in order to organize a pattern of learning experiences that meet the needs of each individual.

THE TEACHER PREPARES TO STUDY THE COMMUNITY

Teachers are primarily concerned with what and how our youth learn. The more effective teachers realize that a large percentage of our youth are doing about as well as they can in school, considering the fact that social pressures and out-of-school environment impede in-school progress. Intelligent teachers always address themselves to the social and environmental problems of the school-community environment because they know that each locality has its individual problems to solve. In considering the effect of social and environmental problems upon the progress of youth at school, the realistic teacher will realize that there are nonthreatening and threatening social-environmental problems and he will always consider the latter type first.

2. Use and discuss the color cartoon film "Boundary Lines." 16 mm sound. 10 minutes. Available through Anti-Defamation League at a nominal rental. Analysis of this film may offer an opportunity to explore further how people learn to behave.

3. Have a student read Laura Hobson's novel, *Gentleman's Agreement*, and review it for the class.

4. Arrange with a local theatre for a special showing of the film "Gentleman's Agreement" or "Crossfire." Have the class attend as a group or theatre party.

5. Ask students to discuss how the main character in such novels as *Gentleman's Agreement* or *Focus* came to believe what he did about basic human rights. These questions might be raised: What might have happened in his past to affect his behavior? What other behavior could he have followed? Could he have known other ways of behaving?

6. Ask students to write papers on "How I Discovered A Pet Belief To Be Untrue," or "A False Notion and How I Think I Learned It." The students should be helped to generalize from such experiences. They should learn that the beliefs and attitudes of friends affect what they believe; that facts should guide the formation of beliefs and attitudes.

If the school conceives its function to be the perpetuation of a static society and the impartation of facts all pertaining to that society, there is little danger that a controversial issue will ever arise in the school or in the community. However, our democratic society is not static; it is constantly changing because it constantly redefines its values and objectives. If a teacher promotes, as he should, an intelligent discussion of school or community social environmental problems, he will eventually be directing a discussion about a controversial issue or issues. Controversial issues should be welcomed rather than avoided but the discussion of them must be intelligently directed. For an excellent discussion of the method of dealing with such issues the reader should consult Alberty's chapter, Dealing with Controversial Issues in the Classroom.[12]

EVALUATION

In Chap. 3 a modern concept of evaluation was developed. The position presented at that time maintained that tests constitute the major type of evaluative instruments but that other means of meas-

[12] H. B. Alberty, "Dealing with Controversial Issues in the Classroom," in *Reorganizing the High-school Curriculum*, Chap. XIV, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947.

On every hand we find people who admit they have active prejudices but who are willing to curb their feelings and support a program to combat intolerance. One of the greatest tasks facing the leadership of American public education today is the establishment, often in the face of strong community opposition, of an educational program that will cause youth to develop the necessary understanding to work with other youth representing various ethnic, religious, and nationality groups.

America is a land of many cultural differences. A program for establishing harmony between all these cultures is a difficult and time-consuming task. This task must and will be undertaken, and when it has reached its successful completion, American schools will have made a contribution of immeasurable significance to the democratic concept of living.

Methods of Studying Social Forces. In the preceding chapter a great amount of space was devoted to the presentation of suggestions for analyzing the environment of home and community. The reader will recall that the supervisor has been recommended as the person most adequately suited for the task of interpreting the school to the community and the community to the school. All teachers should share this tremendous task with, and under the direction of, the supervisor.

In the discussion of public relations, a statement was made to the effect that school children are the schools' best public-relations agents. When a teacher becomes concerned about certain social and environmental conditions in the community that need improvement, he would be wise to use methods that would start the youth in his classes to discuss these conditions. Crary and Robinson [11] suggest the following activities for promoting discussion about civil rights, one phase of the larger community social environmental problem:

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. To observe the relationship between social environment and civil rights patterns, have a group in the class prepare a dramatization based on the Rebecca West report of the Greenville lynching trial—"Opera in Greenville," *New Yorker*, June 14, 1947. A profitable discussion can center on the effects of limited learning on the persons involved in this civil rights issue.

[11] R. W. Crary and J. T. Robinson, *America's Stake in Human Rights*, pp. 35–36, National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin 24, September, 1949.

realize that one of the biggest tasks of the supervisor and his teachers is to design a curriculum to meet the needs of each pupil.

ADAPTING MATERIALS AND FACILITIES TO MEET THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

One of the most neglected areas in the entire teacher-training program is concerned with learning techniques to aid in the adaptation of learning materials to fit the needs of the children in a particular locality. For some time now we have encouraged teachers to stop relying on one text and to use many materials. This has undoubtedly been good advice, and if it has a weakness, it is in the fact that it does not go far enough. Textbooks and other printed learning materials are a necessary part of the material equipment of any school but they are not designed for any particular school. In many instances a teacher and his pupils will search many materials in an attempt to solve a local problem, and all they will discover will be incidental references to similar problems. At this point if the teacher is creative, or if he has a creative supervisor, the children are on the threshold of an excellent learning experience because to solve a problem that is significant for them they must collect, analyze, and develop their own materials.

Unless we teach candidates for the teaching profession workable techniques for independently attacking problems for which there are no available materials, the only alternatives will be for them to consult with their supervisor if one is available, to guess at possible solutions, or to skip the learning experience entirely. No one would condone the use of the last two possibilities, and all would approve the use of the first possibility. The unfortunate actualities are that most school systems do not have an adequate staff of supervisors to offer this type of help to each teacher, and the systems in which such a situation develops are usually the poorer systems possessing a bare minimum of learning materials.

Example Number One, Social Studies. The state department of public instruction develops a course of study including a fourth-grade unit entitled, How People Live and Work in Our County. In all probability the state has not produced learning materials for each county; therefore the teacher and his pupils are faced with the task of producing their own materials. This situation provides an excellent learning experience for the children if the teacher possesses enough

urement such as the anecdotal record, interview, rating scale, etc., have a significant place in the evaluation of pupil behavior and achievement. The purpose of all evaluation is to discover a student's strengths and weaknesses in order to design a more effective educational program for him.

In the chapter referred to above, a discussion of the implications of the evaluation program for the person evaluated and for his associates was presented. Consequently, this section is limited to the presentation of six possible methods of constructively using the results of the evaluation program.

Using the Results of Evaluation. The principal values to be derived from the results of the evaluation program are:

1. They make it possible for the teacher to be more objective when assigning grades. Many theorists are damning the fact that school youth are periodically assigned achievement and behavior grades. The issue at the moment has nothing to do with judging the practice good or bad but is concerned about the development of an objective way to perform this task as long as it is required.

2. An analysis of the results of the evaluation of the complete child form an objective basis upon which to build a program for remedial teaching.

3. An analysis of the results of the evaluation of the complete child furnish an excellent basis upon which to build the individualized guidance program. Items 2 and 3 represent very fine usage of the results of the evaluation program. Within these items is the suggestion that there is an objective method for determining remedial teaching and guidance needs.

4. They make it possible for the teacher to have an objective basis upon which to group and classify children. In some ways this item is closely related to item 3. It is often difficult for a teacher in a crowded schoolroom to offer individual remedial or guidance assistance. Upon the basis of the results from the evaluations, the teacher can classify and group students for the purpose of offering group guidance and remedial assistance.

5. They furnish an excellent basis upon which to judge the child's need for the attention of a specialist in some area.

6. An analysis of the results of the evaluation may furnish an excellent measure of the suitability and effectiveness of the curriculum. For many years we have expected our youth to adjust to the curriculum, but with the development of the evaluation concept we are finally beginning to

of clothing, weapons, household utensils, tools, etc., that were used by the early settlers in their county, but they will only be interested in generalizations about the dates when these articles were used or worn. If these materials are not available in the immediate locality, the teacher must discover the source of the materials, determine which materials will stimulate the learning experience to the greatest extent, take precautions to safeguard the materials, display them to their best advantage, etc.

A unit of this type poses many challenges, and the teacher should not be discouraged because some rather difficult problems must be solved. A competent supervisor can direct his teachers to the solutions of problems of this type. It seems, however, that the preservice-training program for teachers ought to include experiences in solving problems of this type in order that beginning teachers, who may or may not have adequate supervision, will not be deterred from attempting similar units.

Example Number Two, Biology. One objective for teaching biology in our secondary schools is "to interest students in the world in which they live." The easiest and most direct way to interest students in their world is to use the field trip as a medium for instruction. Unfortunately many teachers do not use this medium because they are misapprehensive of the difficulties involved in its management and because they fail to see field-trip possibilities close to school. For example, a biology teacher assigned to a secondary school in the heart of a large city requested information pertaining to possible field trips he might arrange that would be profitable for his students. He received the following answer from Kinsey: [13]

It is surprising how few classes see the opportunity to study biology in fruit and vegetable markets, grocery stores, meat shops, lunch rooms, drug stores, clothing shops, furniture stores, lumber yards, flour mills, slaughter houses, greenhouses and florists' shops, private gardens, hospitals, city water plants, sewage disposal plants, poultry houses, etc., some of which are available in almost any community. It is, of course, necessary to make previous arrangements with the owners, and care must be taken that the class does not interfere with the normal activities of such places, but these are no real barriers to the use of the man-made sources of biologic materials.

[13] A. C. Kinsey, *Methods in Biology*, p. 144, J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1937.

personal security to be able to work independently. There are several steps the teacher should follow in attacking a problem of this type, for example, the teacher should:

1. Explore the interests of the children in the problem.

2. Observe and record children's responses and reactions which give clues to their understanding of the problem and interest in it.

3. Draw out children's opinions in relation to interests and needs that can be met by solving the problem.

4. Study records of past experiences which the children have had with similar problems.

5. Consult with parents concerning the interests of their children in problems of this type.

These statements are all concerned with the readiness phase of problem-solving activity. The skillful teacher can use these steps to obtain much information which will make the subsequent work more successful and meaningful. However, the beginning teacher who has had little or no experience in this type of activity will be too insecure to follow this procedure.

When the readiness phase has been completed, the teacher will encounter many adaptation problems of which the following are typical examples:

1. The work must be kept at the child's level if it is to be meaningful for him. The teacher must remember that an abundance of material is available but it is all written, collected, reproduced, etc., at the adult level. To make the written material meaningful, the teacher will be forced to rewrite it for the age level of the children, selecting words that apply to this level and arranging them so they appear often enough to become eventually a part of each child's vocabulary.

The teacher might impart the adult information to the children by arranging it in story form. If the teacher uses this method, he must still analyze the word content, and if the experience is to be most meaningful, the children should eventually reproduce the story. This procedure has certain advantages, but it is questionable if the children will be able to produce accurately a record of the story by using information twice removed from the original source. If we are to develop positive attitudes toward critical thinking, the method of science, etc., we certainly must develop a profound respect for accuracy.

2. Direct experiences are the best if the appropriate materials are available. For example, children will be actively interested in the types

conduct and assist in conducting home rooms, etc. In other words, this period is devoted to providing a teacher candidate the opportunity to try the various tasks that a public-school teacher must perform.

Many schools maintain excellent student-teaching programs in which a teacher candidate has the opportunity to practice teaching at more than one level under the direction of excellent supervising teachers. Some teacher-training institutions are considering an extension of their programs to include two semesters of student teaching with partial compensation for the teacher candidate during this period. A good program of student teaching cannot be established and maintained without the cooperation of the public-school supervisors. With these thoughts in mind, let us briefly examine some aspects of a modern student-teaching program.

Length of the Program. The student-teaching program should extend for two semesters. During this period the student teacher should be directly responsible to a supervising teacher who is actively teaching at the grade level to which the teacher candidate is assigned. In the process of developing a general teacher, the student teacher should be required to teach at two or more levels. Consequently, the supervising teacher will change each time the student teacher changes the level of instruction at which he is teaching.

The Supervising Teacher. This teacher should have a minimum of five years of successful teaching experience divided, whenever possible, between elementary and secondary teaching. He should have a master's degree or its equivalent including course-work experiences in curriculum construction, modern methodology of teaching, general supervision, and the supervision of student teachers. He should be approved for student-teacher supervision by his superintendent and the teacher-training institution. Since the student teacher will be relatively independent of the teacher-training institution during this period, the supervising teachers should assemble in bimonthly district meetings to discuss student-teacher problems with representatives from the teacher-training institution.

Securing a Student-teaching Position. Student teaching should be a real position secured in a manner comparable to securing a regular teaching position. During the semester prior to the one in which the student expects to secure a position as a student teacher, he should make application for such a position to the director of student teaching at the teacher-training institution. The director will assign

During their preservice-training period a great many prospective biology teachers encounter certain situations which limit their opportunity to have experiences in adapting the biological materials of school and community to meet the possible needs of the youth they will eventually encounter in their classes. First, many prospective biology teachers do not have the opportunity to study biology during their preservice training because the institutions they attend offer botany and zoology. Second, many teacher-training institutions are located on wooded campuses surrounded by lakes, streams, farms, etc. When the instructors arrange a field trip for the prospective teachers, they forget that a school can be located in a nest of factories or apartment houses. Third, the science staff members at the teacher-training institution may concentrate entirely on laboratory work and never plan for the prospective teachers to have field trip experiences. Fourth, the teacher-training institution may own a bus or have access to several station wagons thus making possible field trips to places at a great distance from the institution. Trips such as these are very interesting, but the prospective teacher may come to associate distance and elaborate transportation facilities with all field trips.

The prospective teacher must have experiences in adapting materials and facilities to meet the needs of the youth they will have in their classes. School superintendents have an obligation to provide their supervisors with enough time to consult and advise with the staff at the teacher-training institution in order to design a preservice program that meets teacher needs. The teacher-training institutions will be wise if they encourage this type of cooperation with the public-school personnel of the state.

THE STUDENT-TEACHING PROGRAM

All teacher-training institutions maintain some type of a student-teaching program. These programs usually associate a teacher candidate with a selected public-school teacher who is most frequently assigned the title of "supervising teacher." Commonly, the student-teaching experience is for a period of eight to ten weeks although some institutions require a full semester or more of student teaching. During the student-teaching experience, the teacher candidates are expected to develop lesson plans, teach and assist in the teaching of classes, construct and administer tests, evaluate pupils, select methods for instruction, select objectives for teaching, attend faculty meetings,

PLACES	PERSONS
General office	Secretary or clerk in charge
Supervisor's offices	Supervisors
Guidance director's office	Guidance director
Audio-visual director's office	Audio-visual director
School doctor's office	School doctor
School nurse's office	School nurse
Speech therapist's office	Speech therapist
Classroom locations	Classroom teachers
Library	Librarian
Professional library and work-room	Chairman of committee
Cafeteria	Cafeteria manager
Bookstore	Manager of bookstore
Duplicating department	Secretary in charge
Janitors' rooms	Janitors
All rest rooms	

In addition to knowing the preceding places and persons the student teacher should become acquainted with the following school policies in relation to:

Building hours	Informing school in case of personal illness
Length of school day and divisions	Observing teachers other than supervising teacher
Cafeteria periods and regulations	
School calendar	Parent-teacher and civic groups
Disciplinary regulations	Fire drill regulations
Evaluation procedures	Recreational area regulations
Visitors and observers	Attendance regulations
Announcements	

The student-teaching experience should be divided into four major areas of concentration:

1. The period of observation.
2. The period of observation and participation.
3. The period of independent teaching.
4. The period of evaluation.

It would be impossible to establish a definite line of demarcation between each period. No definite number of periods for observation, or observation and participation, can be determined in advance. The student teacher should be gradually directed toward the period of

the student teacher to a school city or school district in which the institution has a corps of trained supervising teachers; he will notify the superintendent of the city or district of this assignment.

The candidate for the student-teaching position will now make application to the superintendent of the school city or district to which he has been assigned. He should be interviewed by the superintendent, the principal of the building to which he will first be assigned, the supervisor of the level or area in which he will have his first experience, and ultimately by his supervising teacher.

In order to be eligible for student teaching, the student should demonstrate his emotional stability and scholastic ability. Candidates for student teaching should definitely be above the scholastic average for their institution.

The Period of Student Teaching. The student teacher should make arrangements to report to the school at least one full week before the beginning of the fall semester. When he arrives at the school, he should go to the principal's office, identify himself to the secretary and wait to see the principal or assistant principal. When his visit with the principal is finished, he should report to the supervisor of his area or grade level, and following his interview, he should report to his supervising teacher. The student teacher should secure the following from his supervising teacher:

1. A complete schedule of the teacher's activities.

2. A complete set of all the materials which are used by the students assigned to classes with the supervising teacher.

3. A tentative plan for the observations he will make during the first week.

During the week preceding the formal opening of school, the student teacher should help his supervising teacher as much as possible. He should also plan to identify the following places and persons:

PLACES	PERSONS
Superintendent's office	Superintendent
Principal's office [14]	Principal

[14] If the student teacher is assigned to a secondary school, he should visit the principals at the elementary schools from which the secondary-school population is drawn. If he is assigned to an elementary school, he should visit the secondary school to which the elementary population will go.

not be improvised or thought of at the last moment even by experienced competent teachers.

The plan you develop must not be so stereotyped that it becomes stultifying, yet it must lead toward the attainment of the daily aims. *Methods for developing the relationship of the lesson to past and future lessons, and the assignment for future work must be included in this section of the plan.*

3. *Activities of the students.* Have you planned what the students are going to do? Public-school pupils give oral reports, work in committees, plan field trips, read aloud, work problems at their seats, make maps, charts, take examinations, study, answer questions, produce plays, work on puppets, clean aquariums, and many other things as they participate in the learning process. Public-school pupils do not all learn in the same manner or do the same things at the same time. The teacher must study his pupils, use his knowledge of human growth and development, *recognize individual differences, and plan pupil activity in terms of individual activity, small group activity, and total group activity.*

4. *Have you planned to have materials available that will meet the needs of all levels of ability in the class?* Are the materials in good repair? Are there enough materials for all students? If the students are going to construct equipment, do they have the necessary materials and tools? Have you adopted safety precautions for using dangerous equipment? Have you planned to inventory the material after class and return it to its source? Have you planned to clean the material after it has been used?

Teachers and pupils use a great variety of learning materials. The effective director of the educational process will plan to have all necessary materials present at the beginning of each lesson. He will not use class time in a last minute futile search for necessary materials.

5. *Evaluation.*[16] *Did the pupils attain the daily aims? Do the pupils realize that they attained the aims? How could the pupils have attained the aims more efficiently? How many pupils participated actively? Passively? Were the pupils ready for today's lesson?*

Did you, the teacher, perform your pocedures effectively? Did you effectively direct the educational process? Were your teaching techniques effective? What are you going to do to improve yourself before tomorrow?

There are many questions to be answered in the process of evaluating a daily lesson. It is always important to remember that the purpose of evaluation is to reveal those phases in the learning process and in the pupil-teacher relationship that need to be improved.

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[16] The statement of the principal parts of the daily lesson plan in Chap. 3 suggests, but does not include, an evaluation item.

independent teaching, and when the supervising teacher and the supervisor judge him to be ready, he should be inducted into this period.

During the period of independent teaching the student teacher should assume all the teaching responsibilities of the supervising teacher. It is important to understand that teaching responsibilities are inherent in all the school activities of the teacher, in the classroom or laboratory and out of it.

There are many things that should be considered by a student teacher who is approaching the period of independent teaching, but the alert supervising teacher and supervisor will emphasize the importance of planning. If a lesson is worth teaching, it is worth planning. As student teachers grow in competence through experience, they will learn to improve and modify their lesson plans. However, the supervising teacher and the supervisor should hold to the rule that every lesson must be a planned lesson. In Chap. 3, a discussion of daily lesson planning, departmental or area planning, and unit planning was presented. When student teachers are required to report to their assignments one week before the formal opening of school, they will have the opportunity to participate in the departmental or area planning. Unit plans assume such a variety of forms that there would be little value in reviewing the form that was presented earlier. Lesson planning is of such vital importance to all teachers that it is valuable for us to review and elaborate our discussion of it at this point.

THE DAILY LESSON PLAN

1. Aims for the lesson. What are the aims of the lesson today? Do I know what I am striving for? Are the pupils aware of the aims for this lesson? The teacher must clearly establish the aims so that both he and the students go forward toward their attainment. Aims must be established daily, and the supervising teacher must caution the student teacher against confusing daily aims with the ultimate objectives. The successful direction of a daily lesson should result in the achievement of the aims for the day.

2. Activities of the teacher. Have you planned what you, the teacher, are going to do? Are you going to use a motion picture, diagram on the blackboard, demonstrate, read aloud, ask questions, answer questions, tell a story, evaluate, review, direct a planning experience, etc.? It is necessary that your procedures be planned prior to the class period; they can-

and student teachers should have the opportunity to experiment in living on a budget whose items are financed by their own efforts. Three, it is an asset to a school system to have the services of student teachers; consequently, the school system should pay for services rendered. Many persons will be horrified at this recommendation which means another increase in public-school expenses. The horror is rightfully not in the increased expense, but in the fact that these people continue to fail to see that better teachers are an investment in the future, not an expense.

The Teacher Placement Follow-up Service. If a teacher-training institution is to make a maximum use of all methods of evaluating its program, it will follow its teachers to their first positions. This type of service should be divided into two parts. First, a representative from the placement office should visit each superintendent who has employed a teacher from the institution in order to determine if the new teacher is competent, and if he is not competent what the institution can do to remedy the condition. Second, when the placement representative contacts a beginning teacher who does not have the necessary competencies, and if the superintendent desires some particular assistance from the teacher-training institution, then the representative should return to the institution and exert every effort to provide the desired assistance. It is frequently necessary to remind teacher-training institutions, just as we remind the general public, that better teachers are an investment in the future, not an expense.

SUMMARY

Designing the preservice-training program for teachers is a responsibility that must be shared by the entire profession. For many years the practice of education has been to fit pupils into preconceived areas of learning experiences. Unwittingly, perhaps, one outcome of this process has been to take the individuality out of individuals. We are currently experiencing a revolt against this procedure of requiring all learners to engage in the same learning experiences. Kindergarten and primary schools have taken the lead in developing patterns of learning experiences adjusted to the needs of the individual pupil. This movement is progressing upward through the various levels of school organization and ultimately may reach beyond the secondary school.

Evaluation should be a continuous process, but as the term is used here, it refers specifically to a period at the end of the first and second semesters of student teaching. Approximately three weeks before the end of the first semester, the supervising teacher should initiate a series of conferences with the student teacher in an attempt to help him develop an understanding of his strengths and weaknesses. If the supervising teacher, or the student teacher, desires to have the supervisor or the director of student teaching from the teacher-training institution participate in these conferences, he should so indicate. During the second week of the evaluation period the supervising teacher, supervisor, director of student teaching, and student teacher should project the student teacher's strengths and weaknesses into the second semester. During the third week of the evaluation period the same personnel plus the supervising teacher for the second semester will plan activities to strengthen the student teacher's weaknesses and utilize his strengths.

The second period of evaluation should be established during the last two weeks of the spring semester. During the first week the supervising teacher, supervisor, and student teacher should again evaluate the student teacher's strengths and weaknesses. During the second week the director of student teaching and a representative from the institution's teacher placement office should join the evaluation group in order to determine the sort of position in which the student teacher will be successful and happy.

A Final Word. The purpose of student teaching is to give candidates for the teaching profession an opportunity to live in a good school community, to work as a professional employee in a good school system, to become intimately acquainted with all the functions performed by the teacher, and to be evaluated as a candidate for the profession. The preceding paragraphs do not represent an outline for a program of student teaching. They are merely suggestive of the direction in which the program should progress.

It has been suggested at another place in this chapter that student teachers should receive some compensation during this period. This recommendation has a threefold purpose. First, if the student teachers are placed on the payroll of the school system, there will be less question about accepting them as student professional employees. Second, to live independently for one year is an education all by itself. The successful and happy teacher learns to live on a budget,

Chapter 13. THE IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAM

The teaching profession will advance only as long as the teachers continue to advance. Advancement in terms of growth is basically an individual matter. A common stimulus such as a well-executed demonstration lesson, a panel discussion about new techniques, or a written statement of a new interpretation of philosophy may serve as a common stimulus for a group; but it is not the group that grows, it is the individuals who compose the group.

Through a properly supervised in-service training program, groups of individuals who have common interests may be stimulated to become self-directive. When such groups become self-directive, we have an example of the group process operating in such a manner that the objectives for in-service teacher education are approximately realized. If the group process is to be effective, we must have supervisors who can competently stimulate teachers to progress. Ultimately teacher improvement can only be achieved through teacher effort.

Many techniques have been developed for the purpose of stimulating teachers to continual growth. The techniques that are discussed in this chapter have been selected because administrators seem to feel that they have had unusual success with them.

FALL PLANNING CONFERENCES

Each year, more administrators and supervisors are realizing the advantages that are to be obtained from a preschool planning conference or work week.[1] If these conferences are to be used most profitably, the relationships between the individuals who compose the group or various groups in each school must be improved. Obviously the improvement of group relations is important for all types of in-service training programs, but it is considered at this time because this is the first in-service program of the school year.

[1] The mechanics of the work week were discussed in Chap. 3.

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The educational profession is looking forward to the day when teacher-training institutions will begin to prepare general teachers who will be qualified to teach at the primary, intermediate, or secondary levels of school organization. This preparation will probably require six years of training based upon a sound program of general education and concluding with a relatively independent student-teaching experience of one year's duration. The movement to prepare a general teacher may well be the most important educational development of the mid-part of the twentieth century.

purely objective is for most of us only an ideal, but it suggests a fourth source of frustration which is provided by the fact that individuals bring different emotional backgrounds into group situations. This source is so important that it deserves our second primary classification.

Conflicts between Individuals due to Emotional Tensions. Supervisors must realize that group action can be nullified by emotional interference expressed as hostility or resentment which has its origin in other situations. For example, if three members of a faculty take turns driving from home to school and one member begins to neglect his responsibility to the others, it is quite possible that an emotional interference with the relationships between the three members may develop which will affect their relations in other situations. Feelings of inferiority sometimes give rise to aggressiveness which in turn becomes an interference with the relationships between group members. Supervisors must evaluate all conflict in light of the knowledge that a certain amount is healthful and enjoyed by all.

The in-service program must provide teachers with three things. First, as a result of the program, the teachers should develop a feeling of security and should lose all apprehension that the environment in which they work is hostile to them. Second, the program should provide the teachers with an interesting and varied experience thus stimulating them to do better teaching. Third, the program should provide each teacher with an avenue through which he can gain recognition and thus feel more worth while as an individual.

The supervisor who desires to direct the in-service program that will accomplish the preceding three points for each of his teachers must carefully evaluate each of his teachers. It must be remembered that the major purpose of evaluation is to discover those areas in which each individual teacher needs assistance.

DEMONSTRATION AND SCHOOL VISITS

Supervisors ought to encourage teachers with like interests to visit each other in order that all might improve their teaching by sharing experiences. Such visits must be planned in order to obtain the maximum amount of teacher growth from them. The spectacle of a group of teachers descending upon a school in a very unprofessional and disrupting manner in the name of school visitation must be stopped. In its place the supervisor must develop a professional group

To understand teachers, to live with them harmoniously in an atmosphere of mutual respect, and to direct them as they grow professionally and personally, are the highest functions of the supervisor. If the supervisor is to perform this function, he must recognize the rights of each teacher as an individual and as a member of the group. Supervisors must work to attain harmonious relationships between the individual group members but must realize that such a relationship can only be developed as teachers mature together in an atmosphere sympathetic to professional growth. The sources of conflict between individuals are often quite subtle, but the supervisor, who wants to develop an atmosphere congenial to group action, must attempt to understand them.

Conflicts between Individuals due to Frustrations. Supervisors must understand conflicts between individuals arise from two primary sources, frustrations and emotional tensions. As indicated, the first primary source of conflict is found in the fact that individuals defeat or frustrate each other. Frustrations of this type may arise because several individuals desire the same limited experience or recognition. For example, it may be necessary for the group to recognize one of its members as a representative to a state curriculum committee. If more than one member of the group desires this recognition, it is probable that those who are not recognized at this time will be frustrated to some degree. Another source of frustration is provided by situations in which one individual attempts to dominate the behavior of others for his own advantage. Supervisors must avoid giving the impression that they are guilty of such actions, and they must study the individuals of their group in order to prevent such actions. For example, new teachers are occasionally so anxious to be accepted by the experienced teachers that they are willing to be exploited by them. Such situations can ultimately end only in frustration; consequently, the supervisor should provide positive methods through which new teachers can gain security and acceptance.

A third source of frustration is provided when several ideas are suggested by various people of methods to reach some objective or goal which all accept. Obviously only one method, which might be a combination of several methods, can be used. However, each individual approves his own method because of a set of values which he possesses. The task of the supervisor is obviously to attempt to encourage all individuals to evaluate all methods objectively. To be

teacher" adjust adequately to a multiroom situation. Many of the other smaller schools will be in operation for some time to come, and plans should be made to offer supervisory help to the teachers in them. This help must come from three sources. First, as the county superintendencies continue to develop as professional positions, the incumbents will be more qualified to offer assistance. Second, the state departments should increase the amount of supervision they offer all schools, and they should be especially solicitous of the needs of the smaller schools and underprivileged school districts. Third, state-supported teacher-training institutions should place student teachers in these smaller schools, and the supervisors of these student teachers should offer all possible assistance.

DEMONSTRATIONS

The demonstration method is one of the most effective methods for promoting teacher growth. School systems that are forced to employ teachers on emergency certificates, to teach at levels for which they have had little training, are making extensive use of group and individual demonstrations. For example, many school systems are developing extensive physical education programs in their elementary divisions. These programs include rhythmics, mimetics, self-testing activities, etc. Since many elementary teachers do not have appropriate training to direct such a program, the supervisor schedules a group meeting before the beginning of each unit and demonstrates all activities with pupils from each level; following this demonstration he demonstrates with the teachers as pupils.

An increasing number of supervisors are using the state university campus or laboratory schools for demonstration purposes. For example, the supervisor will make arrangements with a specialist at the laboratory school to demonstrate for a visiting group of teachers, or he will arrange to bring the specialist to the school system which he represents to give demonstrations for his teachers. Both methods are commendable, but if the first one is used, the supervisor should establish a plan through which the teachers who visited the laboratory school will demonstrate for those who were less fortunate.

WORKSHOPS

This term is being used to identify many different types of in-service training programs. A definition is probably not important

spirit which, in a group meeting, will cause one teacher to describe his method of approaching some particular problem and finish by inviting his fellow teachers to visit and help him evaluate the procedure he is using.

For example, one of the most important problems confronting many public schools today is to develop more than tolerance between all people regardless of their ethnic or economic backgrounds. A very fundamental principle of democracy is involved in this problem and entire communities are occasionally torn apart while attempting to solve it. However, some public-school systems have had unusual success in developing solutions to this problem. The alert supervisor will encourage his teachers to visit such systems of schools as well as other schools or rooms within the same system or school. The imperative needs of youth are common to youth everywhere, and it is only reasonable to anticipate that teachers will be using techniques in one situation which can be successfully transferred to another. Supervisors must dispel the opinion that a teacher's room is his castle, complete with a door barricaded by emotions and traditions. In its place he must develop the feeling that each room is a learning laboratory for both pupils and teachers.

Teachers are individuals, and techniques that are successful when employed by one teacher may need considerable modification before they can be used by another. To assist teachers in making this modification is one of the most important functions of the supervisor.

In small schools, rural or urban, the supervisory problem is especially acute, and the many fine professional teachers employed in these schools desperately need the type of assistance that comes through sharing experiences. Four types of smaller schools can be identified as supervisor problem areas:

1. One-room, one-teacher schools for which the county superintendent assumes responsibility for supervision.

2. Two- and three-teacher schools for which the county superintendent assumes responsibility for supervision.

3. Schools having two or more teachers, one of them being designated as principal but teaching full time.

4. Schools of the one-, two-, or three-teacher variety grouped together under the supervision of one individual.

The one-room schools are disappearing at a rapid rate, and the primary supervisory problem in this area is to help the "one-room

originate with the same group all of the time? Do all age levels need a solution for this problem? Why has this problem evolved in our school district?

What effects does the problem have on our school and community life? Do groups attack each other? Are pupils discriminated against in school because they belong to a particular group? Are groups discriminated against in the community? Do the members of one group attempt to defile the cultural symbols of other groups, *e.g.*, churches, homes, schools? Are various groups responsible for absenteeism at school?.

What is the actual status of the problem at the present time? Does the problem seem to be increasing? Are facts and figures available that will objectively show the status of the problem? Do any authorities live in the community who would be willing to serve us as resource people?

5. *Proposing solutions.* The group should evolve several solutions to its problem. Each group is composed of many individuals and each one should be entitled to select the solution that for him seems most effective.

6. *Evaluating the solution.* The only way to evaluate the solution is to put it into practice. Unfortunately many workshop programs fail because this step is never accomplished. The supervisor should do everything in his power to implement the usage of workship solutions.

If the solutions to problems do not work in practice, the group should be reassembled in order to correct the error. At this stage it is very easy for some individuals to become very disgruntled; the supervisor must accept the responsibility for preventing this condition from becoming infectious and eventually for relieving it altogether.

CURRICULUM REVISION AND CONSULTATIVE SERVICES

The curriculum is always the major problem in any school. Criticism of the curriculums in our various public schools has been so extensive that it is time for us to realize that with all its faults it has made a contribution to the preservation of democracy, the promotion of a higher standard of living, and to the continuing revelation of technological achievements. The major shortcoming of American public education probably lies in the fact that it has done little or nothing to stimulate spiritual advancement among the youth of our nation.

Obviously curriculum development has not kept pace with developments in the technological field. This lag between curriculum and technological developments is not due to shortsightedness on the

as long as the time devoted to the "workshop" is used to attack educational problems which need attention. For example, workshop time may be used to determine what teachers and supervisors should expect from each other; to give all teachers an over-all view of the reading program in a particular city or district; to analyze methods through which more adequate use can be made of community resources; to create more instructive parent-teacher programs; etc. The general practice in workshops is to encourage the group to develop its own problems and the organization for attacking them. During this phase of the workshop program, many of the participants may become confused at the apparent ineffectiveness of the workshop procedure. The supervisor must work diligently to prevent this state of confusion from becoming a seemingly necessary adjunct to the program, because confusion will only breed frustration among the workshop members.

Suggested Steps in Workshop Organization. All in-service programs should be planned, but rigid adherence to the plan should not be forced when the group problem cannot be effectively solved by it. In other words, problem solving, not adherence to a prearranged plan, is the goal of the workshop group. However, any group operates most effectively with a plan for organization to guide it. The following plan is indicative of many that have been used successfully:

1. *Get acquainted.* The emphasis in the term "workshop" should be upon *work*, and it is impossible for workshop members to evolve common problems unless they know each other.

2. *Evolving the problem.* Every workshop should have a purpose. Sometimes this purpose is stated as a theme for the workshop. Each group leader should state this purpose or theme and each individual should have the opportunity to react to the statement.

3. *Defining the problem.* Each group should specifically define the problem, including its limitations, which it is going to attempt to solve to the best of its ability with the resources that are available.

4. *Analyzing the problem.* For example, the problem might be: How to teach understanding of different peoples and how best to get along with others. With a problem such as this there are several questions the answers to which will lead to a problem analysis. Consider the following questions:

What is the source of the problem? Is this a problem that is common in all neighborhoods, all school cities or districts? Does the problem

creative abilities toward channels that involve things spiritual, that will perpetuate and strengthen democracy in a free world.

Consultative Services. The conventional educational process has succeeded in inculcating basic language-arts skills into a majority of our total population. In addition to these skills, certain other fundamental learnings have been passed before the eyes of youth in our many schools. It is well and necessary that our youth obtain sound foundations in these fundamental subjects, but we have been dilatory in directing the use of these subjects toward social goals. For example, an unestimated number of boys and girls have all but been driven through twelve or more years of public schooling by parents who believed that high-school diplomas and college degrees would ensure success for their children. Our basic curriculums were designed to foster the wishes of these parents. In this mad scramble for individual security, many of us forgot about the children who were not fortunate enough to receive twelve or more years of public schooling, or who did not have the type of ability to profit by the type of program that was being offered. Unwittingly we created a type of educated group who all but forgot the social responsibility that accompanies advanced educational experiences, and at the same time we created a group who were ill-prepared to cope with the problems created by the educated group and themselves. Lately we have recognized the startling significance of this problem, but most teachers have not had the opportunity to develop curriculum materials to cope with it.

Supervisors must realize that teachers need help in keeping their programs abreast of modern problems. It is all but mandatory that consultative services be made available to teachers by state departments and state universities. As a matter of fact, it would be very wholesome for supervisors to cross state boundary lines in order to secure a broader or more varied interpretation of modern techniques and problems for their teachers. The wise supervisor will encourage his teachers to aid in the selection of consultants; the supervisor must remember that the consultant is being contacted in order to help teachers with *their* problems.

When the supervisor and his teachers have decided that they need the services of a consultant and have selected one, they must prepare for his visit. Too often teachers expect a consultant to come and entertain rather than help them. Since consultants are usually paid,

part of our educational leaders, but is attributable to the fact that we have been more willing to amass our resources behind technological advance and expansion than behind educational advance and expansion. This willingness to support technological expansion, as opposed to educational expansion, is due to the fact that it is easy to see a return on an investment in technological things, but it is so difficult to realize a return upon money invested in public education that it is still considered to be an expense. If public education is to receive the support it needs, supervisors, teachers, and administrators must be more diligent in performing their responsibility to explain curriculum changes and other phases of the educational process to students, parents, and other community members.

To improve a curriculum involves making changes. These changes may take the form of deletions, additions, regrouping, or they may involve major alterations and advancement in the total learning process. Regardless of the nature of the change, it can only be accomplished by changing the teachers; it cannot be accomplished through mere mechanical manipulation of the curriculum.

Experience seems to indicate that teachers will work toward curriculum improvement only when they are sensitive to the need for change. In other words, there is such a thing as teacher readiness for curriculum improvement just as there is pupil readiness for reading, arithmetic, etc. Supervisors must assume the responsibility for developing this type of teacher readiness, for stimulating teachers to be sensitive to the need for curriculum improvement.

If a curriculum is improved, teacher growth will accompany the improvement. In-service programs designed for curriculum improvement are always popular with teachers because the program material is so vital to them. For example, supervisors should be concentrating upon helping teachers at all levels to focus their attention beyond their specialties toward the imperative needs that all youth have as a result of the necessity to adjust to a national and international world society. The entire curriculum process must be re-evaluated in an attempt to develop a better balance between those things that are associated with the materialistic side of life and those that involve the relationships among men living together in an increasingly interdependent world. Man is creative and if his creative abilities can be released and directed toward the control of such things as the atom, then educators, as social engineers, can release and direct

ate study that they are willing to pay a bonus or subsidy to teachers who will engage in it. For example, a school board might grant an automatic bonus of one hundred dollars to every teacher who attends summer school and earns as many as six credits. This is undoubtedly a stimulus for many teachers to attend summer school, but one might wonder if the school board received a just return on its investment.

Supervisors, Teachers, and Graduate Study. The supervisor's primary interest is to direct and help his teachers so that they will be increasingly more efficient as directors of the educational process. One way for teachers to have experiences that will enable them to grow in service is to attend summer school provided they are permitted to elect the types of experiences they need when they are on the summer school campus. For example, a teacher enrolled on a university campus for summer work attempted to join in a workshop session. When he approached the leader of the group which interested him, he was asked the following question: "What is your problem?" Surprised and a little amazed he responded with, "I don't have any specific problem!" To which the leader retorted: "This is a place for people with problems; if you don't have a problem, this is no place for you!" We might all agree that this is an extreme case, but when we consider the fact that such a situation could develop between two "professional" people, it serves as an indictment which we should all fight.

A more common example is furnished by the following discussion. Colleges or departments of education located on university campuses certify students to teach when they have completed a required number of hours, credits, or units in professional education courses and selected work in such fields as history, English, mathematics, etc. The first time a teacher so certificated returns to the university, a strange set of circumstances might envelop him. If he desires to continue his study in a subject-matter field such as mathematics, in order to become a better teacher of mathematics, he may find that he cannot elect work that will apply toward his master's degree until he has taken further undergraduate work in order to remove deficiency requirements. At the same time that this situation occurs, the teacher is aware that his school board may pay more salary when he has completed his master's degree regardless of the field in which he completes it. This leaves the teacher with only the alternative of

this represents a gross waste of the school's money and time. It is infinitely much better for the teachers to list their problems, group them into areas, and select a consultant for a specific area. It is also recommended that the supervisor send a statement of the problems, *plus tentative solutions* the group has developed, to the consultant in order that he be able to plan and prepare for his visit. Under no circumstances should a consultant come into a situation with no advance preparation.

SABBATICAL LEAVES AND SUMMER PROGRAMS

Educators have long campaigned for sabbatical leaves. Such a leave offers the individual teacher an opportunity to write, travel, rest, or engage in formal study or research. The school system of which the teacher is a professional employee should be expected to pay all or a substantial percentage of the teacher's salary during this period. Since the school system is sponsoring the leave and paying for it, the teacher should be expected to grow in service as a result of the leave. It would be foolish, and all but impossible, to substantiate before the taxpayers a policy whereby a teacher automatically receives an elongated idle period every seventh year. The alternative is for the teacher to plan his leave with the supervisor.

As a result of a planning conference with the supervisor, the teacher might discover that a program of rest is recommended for him. If the teacher's need for rest is revealed at the end of five or ten years, it would be foolish to require him to wait until the end of a seventh year.

In other words, the term sabbatical should not be interpreted literally because it is impossible for teachers, or any other professional person, to regulate their professional and personal needs to fit seven-year cycles. The supervisor's evaluation of the teacher should reveal the nature of the teacher's needs, and the supervisor should initiate, if necessary, the conference that will lead to a leave if a leave is required to fulfill the needs of the teacher.

Summer Programs. It is now a common practice for teachers to receive an automatic salary increase when they have acquired a master's degree or the equivalent. It is also a rather common practice for states to require a teacher to complete a certain amount of work beyond the bachelor's degree before granting tenure. Some administrators, supervisors, and school boards have so much faith in gradu-

and the supervisor judge that he has reached his goal. Salary increases granted on any other basis are legislated into "pay checks" despite the fact that the teacher may not have achieved any degree of professional advancement as a result of his graduate study.

Obviously teachers do not have access to an adequate amount of the necessary type of supervision to make such a program possible. But if the practice of training general teachers [3] evolves out of the trend toward dual certification [4] of teachers, an adequate amount of modern supervision will become a necessity. Dual certification programs, and eventually programs to train a general teacher, will concentrate more upon preparing and stimulating teachers to continue their preparation without the ever-present monetary incentive being in the background. The highly professional person who will come from such programs will command a salary that recognizes the superior contribution he will make to the community because he is adequately trained.

PROFESSIONAL AND CULTURAL READING GROUPS

Many supervisors are finding the organization of professional reading and discussion groups to be a very interesting and beneficial type of program for in-service training. It is very difficult for busy teachers to find time to keep abreast of the flood of professional literature that all but inundates them. Consequently, the supervisor may divide his teachers into three divisions, the members of which may rotate according to a preconceived plan. The first division reviews new books that are pertinent to the area or department; the second reviews articles in periodicals that have significance for the group; the third reviews other types of literature in the form of pamphlets, commercial announcements, catalogues, etc.

During their group meetings representatives from each division report the results of their activities to the total group. As a result of these reports, a book or subscription to a new magazine may be added to the professional library. The discussion periods which follow the reports offer the teachers an opportunity to develop an understanding of the materials that have been reviewed and evaluated.

[3] A program for training general teachers was discussed in Chap. 12.
[4] Dual certification refers to the practice of certifying teachers at both the elementary and secondary levels upon the satisfactory completion of a stipulated amount of study.

enrolling in the department or college of education. At this point the student becomes practical rather than professional and begins to study public-school administration in order to obtain his administrative licenses. He usually defends himself at this point by saying: "I don't believe I would ever want to be an administrator, but if the opportunity ever presented itself, I would hate to miss it because I didn't have the proper license; after all, administrators make the money."

The Master Teacher. The educational profession must train administrators, supervisors, specialists of all kinds, and teachers. The most numerous group is teachers, and supervisors must be interested in the promotion of in-service programs that will help teachers become master teachers. If the graduate program is to make a maximum contribution to this process, two fundamental changes must occur. First, teacher-training institutions must re-evaluate their standards, and in the case of universities the relationships between schools, in order not to penalize boys and girls through their teachers by insisting upon the maintenance of some artificial barriers that discriminate against teachers. This means that standards for teachers will be raised rather than lowered, but that graduate curriculums will be designed to meet the needs of teachers who aspire to become masters in their profession.

Second, supervisors and administrators must cause school boards and state legislative committees to re-evaluate their action in giving automatic salary increases or a bonus for so many hours of graduate work. The earning of a master's degree, for example, does not ensure that a teacher will become a better and eventually a master teacher. Consequently, a bonus or automatic salary increase ought to be based upon some evidence that the teacher has actually become a better teacher. For example, a modern supervisor and a teacher might outline a graduate program for the teacher designed to capitalize upon his strengths and interests. When the teacher embarks upon this program, the supervisor should continually evaluate with him the progress he is making toward his goals. It may be necessary to alter or shift the emphasis in the program as the teacher progresses, but his major increases in salary [2] should not be received until he

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[2] This statement refers to increases that are granted when a master's degree or its equivalent has been earned, not to annual increments that are provided by salary schedules.

valuable types of resource people. For example, if a school city in Texas was working on its program of intergroup education and was impressed with the type of program being attempted by a school city in Michigan, the simplest way to secure a resource person would be for the two school cities to exchange teachers. Through this process a resource person would not only come to the city in Texas, but a teacher from this city would go to Michigan with a direct report of the problems being encountered. In one sense, an exchange program is another method of increasing the scope of group action.

Internationally, language has always been a barrier to exchange programs. This is indeed unfortunate, and until the condition can be relieved, we must seek an alternate method of fostering international understanding through teacher exchange. One possibility is to exchange teachers on a nonteaching basis thus removing the necessity for mastery of the communications skills so essential to the effective direction of the educational process. A program of this type would be more expensive and perhaps less fruitful; however, these are minor items when the development of international understanding through education is the goal.

SUMMARY

Preparation for teaching is a process that is never finished. Life is constantly changing, and the teachers must change through growth in order to direct the educational process so that it is meaningful for youth. In order to promote the professional growth of teachers in-service training programs have been instituted in most school districts or cities. The idea of in-service training programs is quite old, but the modern supervisor is emphasizing workshops, exchange programs, and reading groups, as opposed to the previous emphasis on institutes.

The name assigned to the in-service program is certainly not as important as the attitude of the supervisor and teachers toward it. Modern supervisors are utilizing the strength that results from group action in order to improve the direction of the educational process. If the group process is to be used successfully, harmonious relationships must exist between the individuals who compose the group. Unfortunately conflicts often exist between individuals; the sources of conflict are often quite subtle, but the successful supervisor will be the one who understands them and uses this understanding to develop an atmosphere congenial to group action.

Professional activities of this type are an especially valuable method of sharing summer school, travel, and sabbatical leave experiences. The informality possible in a program of this nature is conducive to the development of an atmosphere congenial to group action in which personal conflict will always be at a minimum.

Cultural Reading Groups. Supervisors must be interested in the personal as well as the professional growth of their teachers. Actually teacher growth cannot be separated into professional and personal categories, but for purpose of discussion professional reading involves any material that is directly associated with the teacher-pupil relationship and cultural reading is concerned with any material that gives the teacher a degree of refinement, a manner and quality of behavior that sets him apart from others. In the life of the teacher, situations will continually arise in which the cultural and professional reading material will be so interwoven that it will be impossible to separate one from the other. The nature of the cultural reading program may at first be conditioned by the nature of the community in which the school is located, but later on it can be expanded to satisfy the changing needs of growing teachers.

Some educators do not advocate the cultural phase of the reading program believing that this should be an individual matter with each teacher. The fact remains, especially in the case of young teachers, that the preteaching phase of teacher training is quite short; and since the world is composed of so many interesting events that young teachers do not have the opportunity to experience directly or vicariously, supervisors will find these young teachers interested in forming discussion groups about certain topics. Older teachers may not be interested in joining such groups, and they should not be coerced into doing so, but they should always be made welcome.

EXCHANGE PROGRAMS

There are many barriers to exchange programs for teachers, but wherever possible, they should be encouraged. Teacher exchange can take place within a state or between states as well as between countries. Pupils seem to enjoy the experience of having an exchange teacher in the school, and it is certainly a refreshing experience for the teachers to have an opportunity to discuss professional problems with a member of the profession from another locality.

Supervisors realize that exchange programs furnish one of the most

The educational profession can be clothed with distinction and prestige or insignificance and dependence. If distinction and prestige are to be in the foreground, the teachers and supervisors in any school community must assist the community members to determine the direction of community progress. It is right to expect the administrator to coordinate this assistance, but basically his position is strictly subservient to the work performed by the teacher. This attitude can be expressed in another way by stating that the only way to justify the existence of expensive administrative personnel is to evaluate their effectiveness in implementing the ultimate realization of the objectives for education. It must be understood that the coordination and implementation of supervisor and teacher activities is a big task that can only be executed by a skillful, well-trained, experienced educator who has demonstrated his capacity for leadership.

Administration is often judged by the complexity or ingenuity of the organization with which it is surrounded. The administrator in this condition often bases his actions upon the unprofessional assumption that self-interest is the valid end of all action. The modern administrator repudiates such an assumption and uses the special qualities he has for administration in order to expedite the work of the supervisors and teachers who direct the educational process. When administrators accept this interpretation of their function in the total educational process, the type of misinformation which often breeds prejudice among the various factions of the teaching profession will no longer exist. As the prejudice and barriers between the various factions are dispelled, education will become more professional, and all members will be enabled to fulfill the obligations of their appointed tasks with increased knowledge and imagination.

In a final analysis all administration and supervision exist for the sole purpose of providing effective learning experiences for pupils. The work of all educators must, to a large extent, be evaluated in relation to the actual contribution each has made to the education of our youth. In fulfilling the obligations of their position, administrators must be both proud and humble.

THE SUPERVISOR OF TOMORROW

In America the people have created a vast system of public schools in order to perpetuate their accepted mode of life and to prepare

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THE NEED FOR SUPERVISION

Few thoughtful educators would deny that improving supervisory practices is one of the most important professional educational imperatives. Those responsible for supervision must help and stimulate teachers to constant growth. This growth must encompass more than mastery of additional subject matter and the further accumulation of new methods to use in the classroom. It must stimulate teachers to analyze their attitudes and behavior in relation to the basic purposes of public education and to the total school environment, including the community as well as the individual classrooms.

Periodically the American school system experiences a shortage of well-trained teaching personnel at some level. Since growth is a continuous process, the result of employing substandard teachers is felt not only at the level at which the teachers are employed but at all successive levels. For example, since the conclusion of the Second World War, and extending into the future for several years, we have been faced and are going to be faced with an acute shortage of elementary teachers. To relieve this shortage many substandard teachers have been employed, and, for the most part, these teachers have not had access to competent modern supervision. As a result it may be assumed that many of the pupils who have started, or will start, to school in this period have not, or will not, receive training commensurate to that received by pupils who were not handicapped by the problems that arise during a teacher shortage.

In addition to being intermittently handicapped by substandard teachers, pupils are often handicapped by wide divergences in the educational philosophies which are accepted and practiced at various school levels. Such divergences involve more than an academic argument; they also involve a professional responsibility to the pupils and to the citizens who have placed so much faith in public education. It is absolutely mandatory that relationships based upon mutual respect and a desire for cooperation be established between the secondary and elementary schools. The objectives for education apply to all school levels. When the objectives have been translated into terms of pupil needs, it is only necessary for the supervisor and his teachers to adapt these needs to fit the growth level of the pupils.

The principle of continuous growth indicates the necessity for close cooperation between all school levels. In the preceding para-

Chapter 14. SUPERVISION FOR TOMORROW

America is a land of change and motion. In such a land the problems of education must necessarily be of paramount importance. This is especially true during any era in which the values that stimulated the formation of the objectives for education are subjected to change. Those things to which society attaches the greatest amount of valuation must first be recognized, because it is these values that furnish the basis for the educational objectives.

In America, public schools have been established for the purpose of maintaining stability in our society and illuminating the direction of its growth. Before youth can become stable members of society, they must understand the development of the forces that are influencing the changing of our values at any moment. To develop this understanding has long been the aim of educators, but to accomplish it, they have made multiple divisions and subdivisions in all fields of knowledge. This process of division and subdivision has, in some instances, progressed to the place where it is all but impossible for a pupil to obtain even a general picture of the life to which he must adjust. If our teachers, the directors of the educational process, cannot integrate, or cannot obtain supervisory help to integrate, the learning experiences which pupils need to adjust to life, these teachers may easily create pupil readiness to accept a counsel of despair.

To prevent this condition from developing the supervisor of tomorrow must exert every effort to cause the school to become the concern of the whole community. Thus, in a very broad sense, the community members who collectively created the schools to perform certain functions in the training of the youth, that could no longer be practically performed by the individual community members, will be in an intelligent position to receive an accounting on their educational investment.

The educational profession can be clothed with distinction and prestige or insignificance and dependence. If distinction and prestige are to be in the foreground, the teachers and supervisors in any school community must assist the community members to determine the direction of community progress. It is right to expect the administrator to coordinate this assistance, but basically his position is strictly subservient to the work performed by the teacher. This attitude can be expressed in another way by stating that the only way to justify the existence of expensive administrative personnel is to evaluate their effectiveness in implementing the ultimate realization of the objectives for education. It must be understood that the coordination and implementation of supervisor and teacher activities *is a big task that can only be executed by a skillful, well-trained,* experienced educator who has demonstrated his capacity for leadership.

Administration is often judged by the complexity or ingenuity of the organization with which it is surrounded. The administrator in this condition often bases his actions upon the unprofessional assumption that self-interest is the valid end of all action. The modern administrator repudiates such an assumption and uses the special qualities he has for administration in order to expedite the work of the supervisors and teachers who direct the educational process. When administrators accept this interpretation of their function in the total educational process, the type of misinformation which often breeds prejudice among the various factions of the teaching profession will no longer exist. As the prejudice and barriers between the various factions are dispelled, education will become more professional, and all members will be enabled to fulfill the obligations of their appointed tasks with increased knowledge and imagination.

In a final analysis all administration and supervision exist for the sole purpose of providing effective learning experiences for pupils. The work of all educators must, to a large extent, be evaluated in relation to the actual contribution each has made to the education of our youth. In fulfilling the obligations of their position, administrators must be both proud and humble.

THE SUPERVISOR OF TOMORROW

In America the people have created a vast system of public schools in order to perpetuate their accepted mode of life and to prepare

graph it was stated that the objectives in terms of needs must be adapted to fit the growth level of the pupils. When these adaptations have been made, they must become common knowledge for all school levels in order that the teachers at succeeding levels may adjust their work accordingly and the teachers at preceding levels may use the needed adaptations as one criterion for evaluating their work. In many ways the difference between the needs at various levels is a matter of emphasis and intensity rather than principle. For example, boys and girls in the primary grades will need direction in recognizing the numerical aspects in familiar situations and in using a variety of materials that will stimulate them to develop number concepts. As these boys and girls advance, their need for adequacy in the use of numbers receives more emphasis and becomes more intense, because an understanding of numerical concepts is now basic to their making a successful adjustment to a quantitative and qualitative world. As long as the problem from grade to grade is a matter of changing the emphasis placed upon needs, as these needs progressively become more intense, it shoud be a relatively easy matter for supervisors to improve the articulation between all levels. The basic problem in this process of improvement will be changing the attitudes of the teachers at all levels.

Those responsible for supervision must continually be alert to opportunities to bring teachers together in working groups in order that all may profit through sharing their experiences with each other. However, group participation must not become an end in itself. To prevent this the supervisor and his teachers should solicit community support and understanding for their efforts in order actually to make education a continuous process in school and out. Eventually professional educational personnel and community members must realize that they cannot stand apart as separate entities if a continuous and better educational program is to be provided for all youth.

ADMINISTRATORS, SUPERVISORS, AND DEMOCRACY

The attitude of the top administrative officials in any school or school system will condition the attitude of the teachers, and the community in which they work, toward supervision. Consequently, before considering the supervisor of tomorrow, it is first necessary to reconsider what the attitude of the administrators should be if the supervisory program is to be successful.

abilities. It must always be remembered that each individual, to the best of his abilities, must earn the right to participate in this human relationship; this does not imply that any individual or group has the right parasitically to receive the benefits of it.

The progress of the development of the relationship between individuals can never be entirely evaluated in terms of material successes. For many years we have evaluated progress in these terms and, in so doing, have neglected probably the greatest problem confronting our society, which is to increase man's control over himself. It is not enough to train youth to be more efficient consumers and producers; they must be trained to be better human beings. To attain such an end, learning experiences must be designed which avoid superficiality and yet meet the needs of all individuals. These experiences must be planned by teachers of high quality who continue to grow professionally under the direction of supervisors who are both proud and humble. The arrogant, encyclopedic type of person who masqueraded as a supervisor of public education and attempted to *tell* teachers this, that, and the other thing must be relegated to the past. His place will be taken by the supervisor of tomorrow who will be inspired by the great responsibility that must be accepted by public educators, and who, with an appropriate spirit of humility, will attempt to accomplish his purposes through the use of the democratic procedures of consultation, persuasion, discussion, and cooperation.

the youth to make and adjust to the changes that are necessary if this mode of life is to progress. Ultimately the teacher is the person who directs the educational experiences which enable the young to adjust to life. The modern teacher also assists in illuminating for both adults and youth the direction which change should take in the community's total educational program. In this scheme of things, realizing that teachers too must grow, the supervisor is the person who is directly responsible for planning and directing teacher growth and co-ordinating teacher activity.

The supervisor of tomorrow will build his program upon the concepts that are associated with the word "democracy." To many people this word is as empty as the promises in a fairy tale, because they have not had enough direct experience with the democratic process in action. Since the concepts which surround this word are basic to the preservation and development of our way of life, and since the schools are being charged with the responsibility for providing our youth with direct democratic experiences, it is necessary to examine some facts about democracy. Basically the concept of democracy encompasses an entire way of life, but the following discussion considers only those aspects that influence the personal relationships between pupils, teachers, and supervisors.

Democracy is not a gift that we deliver to our youth, or a prize that is won only by the strong, but a way of life that must be earned by those who wish to share it. This way of life is based upon the recognition of the inherent dignity of each individual and presupposes that each individual will appreciate the inherent dignity of all his fellowmen. Within a democracy each individual has certain privileges or rights which are accompanied by an equal number of duties or obligations. It is a function of the educational process to develop a proper balance between rights and duties or privileges and obligations. Schools will never achieve perfection in establishing this balance; if they did, they would become mere indoctrination centers rather than problem-solving laboratories designed to help each pupil make a more adequate life adjustment.

Democracy indicates a particular type of relationship between individuals. The development of this relationship should always be in the direction of each man becoming his brother's keeper, in the sense that he accepts the social responsibility for those who have been less fortunate and who can profit through the exercise of his special

SUGGESTED BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR SUPERVISORS

This bibliography is divided into fourteen related parts: (1) Supervision; (2) Objectives (to determine what purposes the schools should serve it is necessary to study community structure); (3) Administration; (4) Curriculum; (5) Methods; (6) Language Arts—English and Foreign Languages; (7) Social Living—Social Studies; (8) Arithmetic and Mathematics; (9) Art and Music; (10) Science; (11) Industrial Arts—Vocational, Agricultural, and Commercial Education; (12) Health and Physical Education; (13) Rural Educational Problems; (14) Evaluation.

This bibliography does not include an exhaustive listing of the books in these various areas but is composed of selected books which will indicate to the supervisor the nature of the resource books available in the areas. In a majority of cases books have been selected which recognize the importance of a continuous program of education from elementary school through the secondary school.

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LIST OF VISUAL AIDS

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Both motion pictures and filmstrips are included in this list of visual materials, and the character of each one is indicated by the self-explanatory abbreviations "MP" and "FS." Immediately following this identification is the name of the producer; and if the distributor is different from the producer, the name of the distributor follows the name of the producer. Abbreviations are used for names of producers and distributors, and these abbreviations are identified in the list of addresses at the end of the bibliography. In most instances, the films listed in this bibliography can be borrowed or rented from local or state 16-mm. film libraries.

Unless otherwise indicated, the motion pictures are 16-mm. sound films and the filmstrips are 35 mm., silent.

PRINCIPLES OF SUPERVISION

The visual materials in this bibliography are grouped under two major headings: Principles of Supervision and Educational Principles and Practices. The films listed in the former section deal mostly with supervision in industry. Although the characters and situations are industrial, the principles are universal and apply to educational supervision as well as to industrial supervision. Also, it should be noted that many of the films listed in the second section of this bibliography deal with supervision in their portrayal of educational methodology.

The Boss Didn't Say Good Morning (MP, MGM/TFC, 11 min). Story of the psychological effect a boss's failure to say good morning has on an employee. Somewhat exaggerated situation, but makes the point that everyday matters are extremely important in human relationships.

Developing Cooperation (MP, USN/UWF, 15 min). Right and wrong ways to supervise; developing cooperation among employees.

Supervising Workers on the Job (MP, USOE/UWF, 10 min). Dramatized incidents illustrating good and poor methods of supervision, including the necessity of obtaining the confidence of workers and the dangers of "snoopervising." (Problems in supervision series.)

a resource laboratory and the leaders of the community going into the school as lecturers or demonstrators.

Education through Art and Home Economics (MP, TC, 9 min). How a sewing project can provide opportunities for girls to acquire basic skills in both art and home economics.

Film Tactics (MP, USN/UWF, 22 min). The right and wrong ways of the instructional use of films illustrated through imaginative scenes of the mental impressions of students during different types of instruction.

Freedom to Learn (MP, OWI/UWF, 17 min). Philosophy and activities of American universities, illustrated through a pictorial survey of the State University of Iowa.

Giving a Shop Demonstration (MP, USN/UWF, 18 min). How a shop teacher prepares for and demonstrates to a class of Navy trainees the making of a flanged tray. Illustrates elements of a good demonstration and how this method of teaching can be used effectively.

Learning Democracy through School-Community Projects (MP, Mich U/Locke, 22 min). How the public schools of Michigan provide opportunities for students to experience democracy by participating in school and community projects. Curricular innovations, extracurricular activities, and methods of instruction.

Learning to Understand Children. Part 1: A Diagnostic Approach (MP, McGraw, 20 min). Case study of a 15-year-old girl, badly maladjusted in school, and the teacher's attempts to learn the causes of the girl's maladjustment. Illustrates principles of good teaching and good supervision, *e.g.*, learn the facts.

Learning to Understand Children. Part 2: A Remedial Program (MP, McGraw, 22 min). Continuation of Part 1 showing the teacher's program, curricular and instructional, to help the girl become adjusted to herself and to the school environment.

Maintaining Classroom Discipline (MP, McGraw, 15 min). Two methods of discipline and their results in terms of classroom behavior and student learning. Principles shown apply to supervision as well as to classroom teaching.

New Home (MP, BIS, 25 min). Class and teacher study the community in which they live. Illustrates principles basic to good teaching.

One-teacher School (FS, ACE, 57 fr). Plant and equipment, facilities, classes, and activities in a one-teacher school. (Accompanying lecture notes.)

Physical Education Instructor (MP, Va Ed, 11 min). Importance of good organization in a physical education program through the illustration of a girls' physical education class which is well organized and conducted.

* *Principles of the Art and Science of Teaching* (MP, Iowa U, 55 min). Illustrates through the activities of a high-school class in American history three principles of good teaching: (1) formulation of objectives, (2) selection of content and activities, (3) adaptation of method.

The Problem of Pupil Adjustment: The Drop-out (MP, McGraw, 20 min). Characteristics of the high-school program which led Steve Martin to leave school as soon as possible. (Educational psychology series.)

The Supervisor as a Leader. Part 1 (MP, USOE/UWF, 14 min). Four dramatized episodes illustrating poor supervisory practices and the importance of the following rules: Always keep promises. Never take credit for someone else's work. Don't pass the buck. Don't play favorites. (Problems in supervision series.)

The Supervisor as a Leader. Part 2 (MP, USOE/UWF, 13 min). Four more dramatized instances of poor supervision leading to the following generalizations: Be a leader, not an authoritarian. Show appreciation for a job well done. Do not become angry. Protect the rights and feelings of workers. (Problems in supervision series.)

EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES

The visual materials in this section deal with educational objectives, administration, curriculum, methods, and evaluation, but no attempt has been made to separate them into categories since most of them touch upon several different subjects. Film users who wish a more detailed bibliography should obtain *Selected Films for Teacher Education* published by Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

And So They Live (MP, NYU, 25 min). Poverty of the land in a rural community; lack of proper diet, housing, and sanitation; and the need for a closer relationship between the school program and the needs of the community.

Assignment: Tomorrow (MP, NEA, 26 min). Importance of the teacher and the public school in preserving the American way of life. Stresses community needs and the role of the teacher in meeting such needs.

Better Schools for Rural Wisconsin (MP, Wis U, 30 min). Contrasts the plant, equipment, and facilities of a small rural school in Wisconsin with those of a consolidated school in New York state.

A Better Tomorrow (MP, OWI/UWF, 18 min). Educational activities in three New York City schools—elementary, junior high, and senior high.

Broader Concept of Method. Part 1: Developing Pupil Interest (MP, McGraw, 13 min). Contrasts a conventional, teacher-dominated lesson with an informal class in which teachers and students plan and work together. Correlated filmstrip, same title, also available.

Broader Concept of Method. Part 1: Developing Pupil Interest (FS, McGraw, 33 fr). Supplements motion picture, same title.

Broader Concept of Method. Part 2: Teachers and Pupils Planning and Working Together (MP, McGraw, 19 min). Students learning to work together in class projects with the help and guidance of the teacher. Correlated filmstrip, same title, also available.

Broader Concept of Method. Part 2: Teachers and Pupils Planning and Working Together (FS, McGraw, 37 fr). Supplements motion picture, same title.

Centralized School (FS, ACE, 54 fr). Plant and equipment, building interiors and exteriors, school activities, and classes in a centralized school. (Accompanying lecture notes.)

Community Resources in Teaching (MP, Iowa U, 20 min). How a community and its school can work together through the students using the community as

USN—U.S. Department of the Navy, Washington 25, D.C. (Films released for public educational use through U.S. Office of Education and sold by United World Films.)

USOE—U.S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D.C. (Films sold under Government contract by United World Films.)

UWF—United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Avenue, New York 29.

Va Ed—Virginia State Department of Education, Richmond.

Wis U—University of Wisconsin, Bureau of Visual Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin.

The Problem of Pupil Adjustment: The Stay-in (MP, McGraw, 19 min). How "dropouts" can be reduced when individual needs are met in a school program that stresses learning in terms of adjustment to everyday living.

Safest Way (MP, AAA, 18 min). Illustrates, through a class project in safety education, basic principles of good teaching, the uses of audio-visual methods, and democracy in the classroom.

School in Centreville (MP, NEA, 20 min). Illustrative example of a rural school with a program geared to the needs of its community.

The School That Learned to Eat (MP, Gen Mills, 21 min). How a school and a community cooperated to put into practice a nutritional program.

Schoolhouse in the Red (MP, Kellogg/EBF, 40 min). Factors involved in the problem of school consolidation and the reactions of citizens in a small rural community to the question of joining a larger school district.

Teacher as Observer and Guide (MP, TC, 20 min). Classroom situations emphasizing the importance of the teacher as an observer and a guide of pupil growth and development.

Wilson Dam School (MP, TVA, 21 min). Daily activities, instructional methods and materials, and curricular objectives of the Wilson Dam School in Alabama.

DIRECTORY OF SOURCES

AAA—American Automobile Association, 17th and Pennsylvania Avenue N.W., Washington, D.C.

ACE—American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.

BIS—British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

EBF—Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Illinois.

Gen Mills—General Mills, Film Library, 400 2d Avenue S., Minneapolis 1.

Iowa U—State University of Iowa, Iowa City.

Kellogg—Kellogg Foundation, Battle Creek, Michigan. (Film distributed by Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.)

Locke—Locke Films, Inc., 120 W. Lovell Street, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

McGraw—McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., Text-Film Department, 330 W. 42d Street, New York 18.

MGM—Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer, Hollywood, California. (Films distributed by Teaching Film Custodians.)

Mich U—University of Michigan, School of Education, Ann Arbor, Michigan. (Film distributed by Locke Films.)

NEA—National Education Association, 1201–16th Street N.W., Washington, D.C.

NYU—New York University, Film Library, 26 Washington Place, New York 3.

OWI—Office of War Information, Overseas Branch, Washington, D.C. (Terminated in 1945. Functions transferred to U.S. Department of State. Films released for use in U.S. through U.S. Office of Education.)

TC—Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

TFC—Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., 25 W. 43d Street, New York 18.

TVA—Tennessee Valley Authority, Film Services, Knoxville.

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